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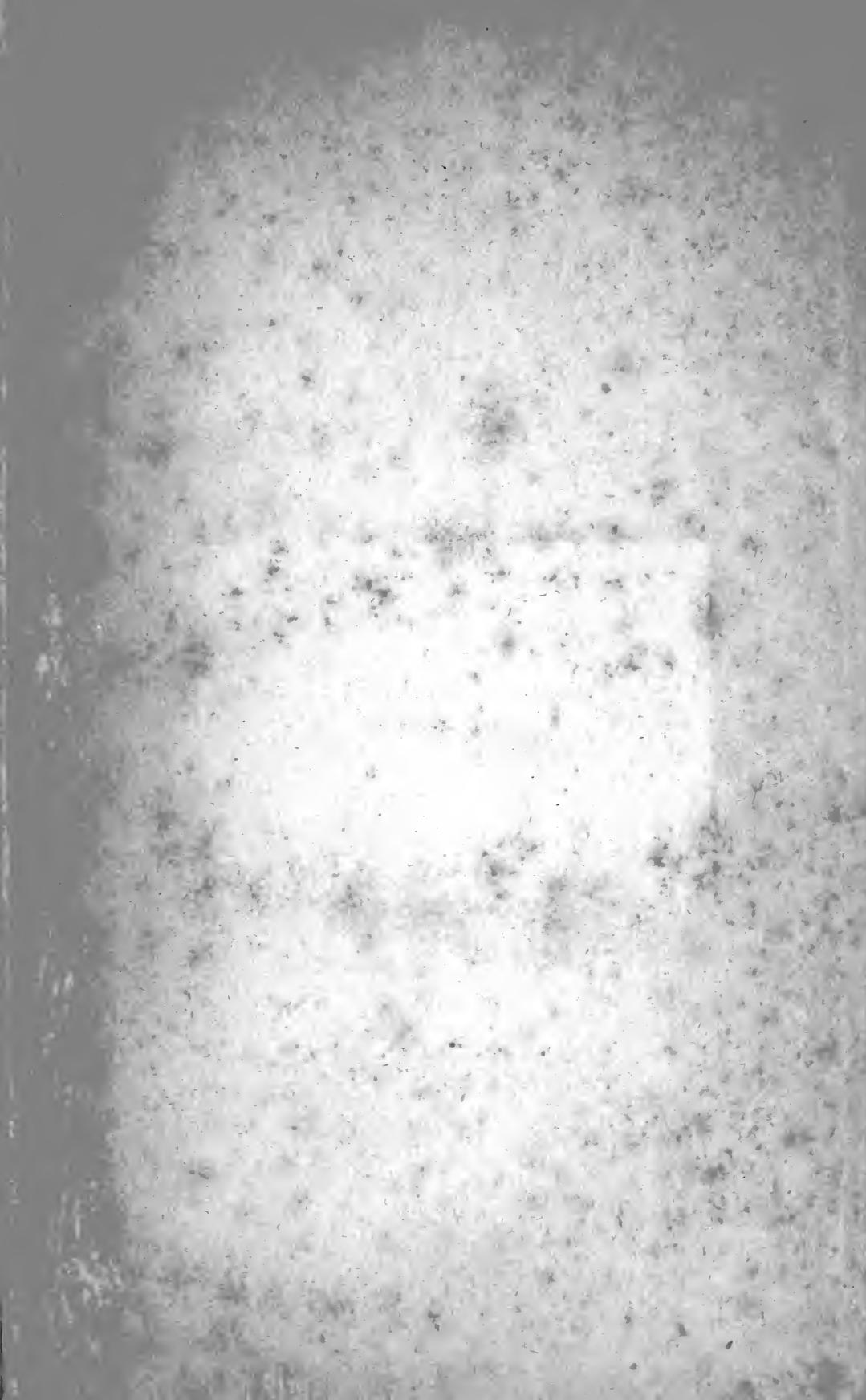
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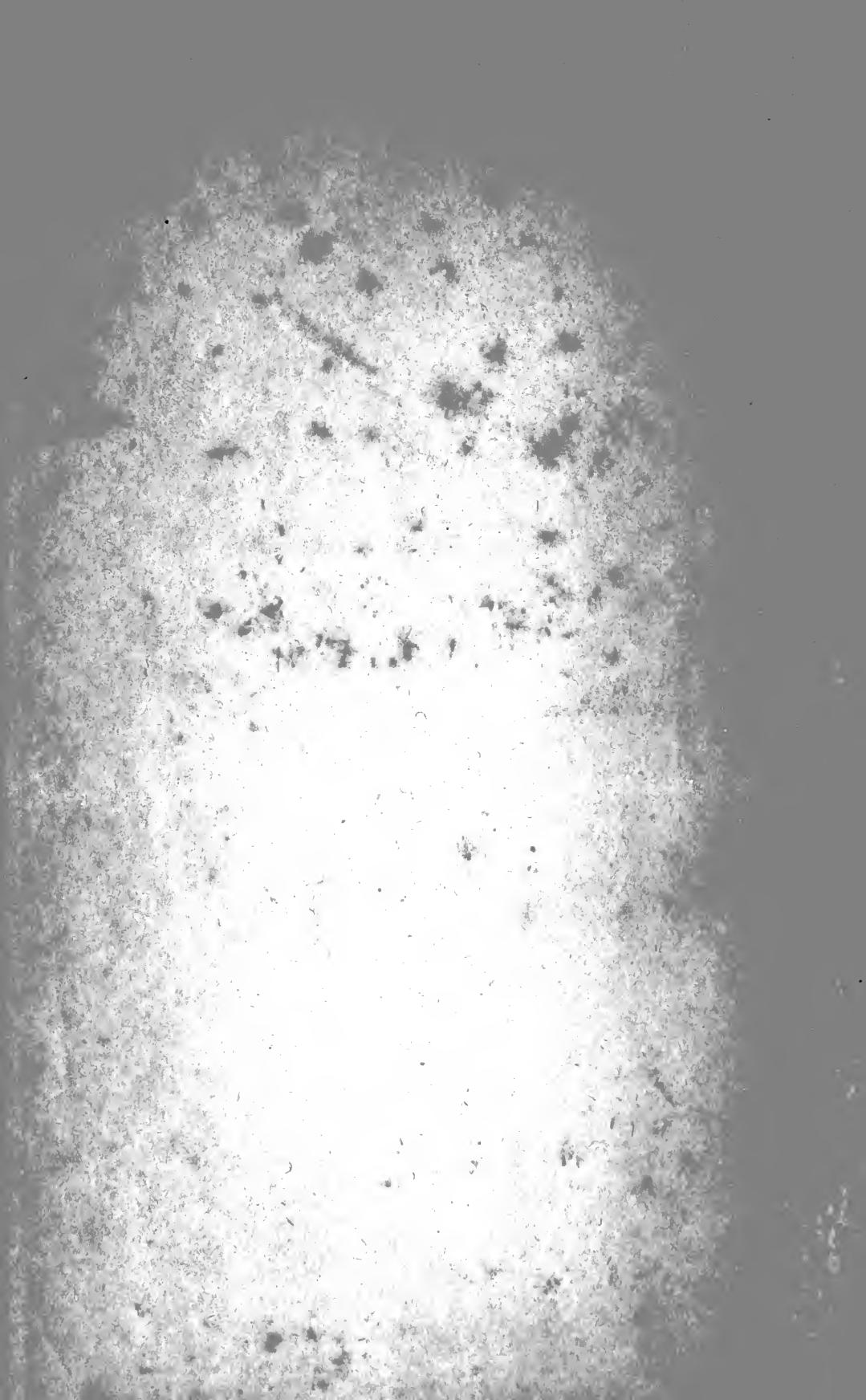
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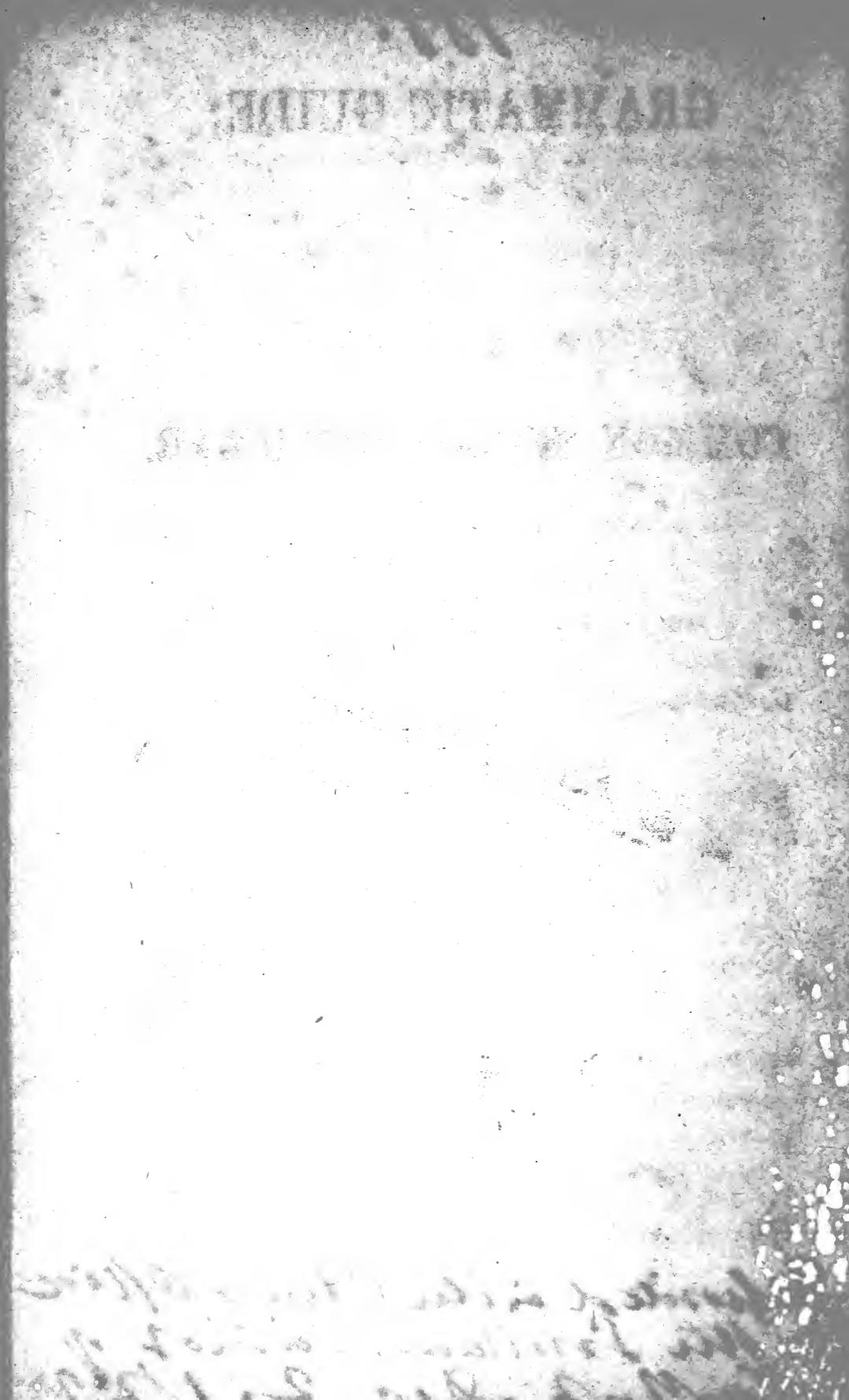
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GRAMMATIC GUIDE;

OR

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Common School Grammer
Vol. 86. of 2228.

COMMON SCHOOL GRAMMAR.

BY

D. CAVERNO ALLEN.

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39

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P R E F A C E.

IN presenting this volume to the Public, the Author has no apologies to make.

It is almost the offspring of necessity, having grown out of the course the Author has pursued in teaching English Grammar for some time.

No work was found embracing his views of the subject ; but this alone would not have called forth this volume. It was the order in which our text books on English Grammar are arranged, that caused the great difficulty.

But while preparing a work which should obviate this difficulty, the Author has had no hesitation in introducing the results of his own experience, although they may, in some instances, be a departure from long established opinions.

Every thing deemed unnecessary has been laid aside, and the sole object has been to prepare

a work which should be an aid to the Teacher in his arduous and responsible labors, and an assistance to the Student in acquiring a thorough and practical knowledge of his mother tongue.

If these ends shall be even partially accomplished, the ardent wishes of the Author will be gratified, and the labor of preparing the work will receive its reward.

ONONDAGA INSTITUTE, *June 26th, 1847.*

INTRODUCTION.

“THE grammar of every language is merely a compilation of those general principles, or rules, agreeably to which that language is spoken. When I say, a compilation of rules, I would not be understood to mean, that the rules are first established, and the language afterwards modelled in conformity to these. The very reverse is the fact; language is antecedent to grammar. Words are framed and combined to express sentiment, before the grammarian can enter on his province. His sole business is not to dictate forms of speech, or to prescribe law to our modes of expression; but, by observing the modes previously established, by remarking their similarities and dissimilarities, his province is to deduce and explain the general principles, and the particular forms, agreeably to which the speakers of that language express themselves. The philosopher does not determine, by what laws the physical and moral world should be governed; but, by the careful observation, and accurate comparison of the various phenomena presented to his view, he deduces and ascertains the general principles by which the system is regulated. The province of the grammarian seems precisely similar. He is a mere digester and compiler, explaining what *are* the modes of speech, not dictating what they *should be*. He can neither assign to any

word a meaning different from that which custom has annexed to it ; nor can he alter a phraseology to which universal suffrage has given its sanction."

His duty is to reduce the whole matter to a system, to notice the influence which one word has upon another with which it stands connected, and to classify the " sounds significant," or words, according to the offices which they severally perform.

The strange diversity of opinion in regard to the number of the parts of speech, is chiefly owing to a propensity to judge concerning the character of words more from their form, than from their proper signification ; or perhaps it has partly arisen from judging a word by its emphasis, which, as well as form, is a most fallacious criterion.—We suppose the *particular office performed by a word*, to be the only *true* guide for its classification.—If certain words are found to be names, they should be called names ; if another class of words *assert* action, they should be called asserters ; if some words seem to modify other words, they should be called modifiers ; and also, if some words are used to connect others, they should be called connectives. All the words in the English language can be, and are, comprised in these four classes,—and by a reasonable subdivision we shall find only seven parts of speech ;—namely, Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions. Some objection may be raised to this subdivision, and the question may be asked, " How happens a pronoun, which is a word used *instead* of a noun, to be found among nouns or names in the general division ?" The pronoun stands instead of a noun, performs the office of the noun for which it stands, and is, in fact, as far as its use is concerned in

the sentence, strictly a noun, but not a *primary* one. It is a *secondary* noun—a sort of agent for the primary noun, to perform its office, in its absence.—Let us consider an example:—

“Bunker’s awful mount is the capacious urn of their ashes; but the flaming bounds of the universe could not limit the flight of their minds. They fled to the union of kindred souls.”

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Asserters.</i>	<i>Modifiers.</i>	<i>Connectives.</i>
mount	is	Bunker’s	of
urn	could limit	awful	but
ashes	fled	the	of
bounds		capacious	of
universe		their	to
flight		the	of
minds		flaming	
they		the	
union		not	
souls		the	
		their	
		the	
		kindred	

The first and second classes will not require any particular investigation, as they are the same as in our common grammars; but the third class, *modifiers*, deserves particular attention.

It will be observed, in the first place, that the articles are classed there. What is understood by a modifier is, a word used to stamp or characterize another word, and the question to be decided is, whether the words *a*, *an*, and *the*, stamp, characterize, or designate other words.

“Articles,” says Smith, “are words placed before nouns to limit their meaning.”

It is also an office of the adjective to limit the meaning of nouns; in fact, nearly every adjective,

and I might say all, are known and are so called because they "*restrain from a general signification*," which is the definition of the word *limit*. Then we have *two* classes of words, the properties of which are the same, and of course one of them is needless, and they should *all* be called either Articles or Adjectives.

"The Article may properly be regarded as an adjective word."—*Bullions*.

"These words, *a* and *an*, are now termed Indefinite Articles; it is clear, however, that they are truly numerals. By whatever names these terms, *a*, *an*, may be designated, it seems evident that they were originally synonymous with the name of unity."—*Crombie*.

"We have also another word, *the*, named the Definite Article, because it is said to point out the individual object. This word, I doubt not, proceeded from the word *this* or *that*, much in the same manner as *a* and *an* from *ae* and *ane*."—*Crombie*.

"The truth is, the Articles *a* and *the* are both definitives."—*Harris*.

It is true that the common name of unity, *one*, is more emphatic than *a*, also that *this* or *that* is more emphatic than *the*, and this seems to be the only difference; but if classification were controlled by emphasis we should have almost as many parts of speech as there are words.—But it is not necessary to enlarge upon this point, as the Article is now classed with Adjectives by some of our authors of grammars.

Again, the possessive cases of nouns and pronouns have been called Adjectives, or modifiers of names, from these facts.—In the example, "Bunker's awful mount," does not the word *Bunker's* restrain the general signification of the noun or name *mount*? It designates what mount, that is, it limits the meaning of the noun which follows it, in the same manner that *awful* designates the mount by giving its character. The latter

is an adjective, and why is not the former? But the question may be asked, "Does the word Bunker's tell what kind of a mount it was?" Are all adjectives adjectives of quality? Can we always ask that question in regard to *any* adjective? Certainly not. Then *this* does not make an exception, and therefore, as it does not interfere with any universal or even general rule, there arises no propriety in thus classing it.—But supposing that it is not acknowledged as an adjective, where can we class it? With nouns? "A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing;" and every noun is a name, but of what is Bunker's a name? The fact is, there is no such name. It is true that the word *implies* the name, Bunker, but no person has ever defined a noun as a word which *implies* a name,—it *is* a name. We might, with as strict propriety, say, that *golden* was a noun because it implies the name *gold*; but it is not a name, and has never been classed as such on that account. Then, as the possessive case *is not* the "name of any person, place, or thing," it cannot be classed with nouns, and it must necessarily come under the head of that class of words which distinguish one noun from another, *adjectives*.

In the sentence, we have the word *their* referring to the heroes of the Revolution; "their minds," that is, the "heroes' minds." Now it has been said that Bunker's could not be a noun, and as *heroes'* belongs to the same class of words precisely, it cannot be considered a noun. *Their* stands instead of *heroes'*, and as *heroes'* is not a noun, *their* is not a pronoun. "A *pronoun* is a word used instead of a *noun*." Then it is evident, that the "possessive pronouns" are nothing more than adjectives modifying the following noun. All modifiers are

not modifiers of nouns. Some modify verbs, and may be classed by themselves under the name of Adverbs. Adverbs are well understood, and it will be unnecessary to enlarge upon their nature and properties in this place.

Connectives.—Some of these require a certain case of the noun to follow them, or, in other words, they must be placed before a certain case ; these are called Prepositions. The other words of the class of connectives are called Conjunctions.

But to return again to Nouns. Nouns have no first and second person, because they are always the subject of discourse. In such examples as the following, “I Paul the Apostle,” Paul is said to be in the *first* person, but if it was “Paul the Apostle” then we should be told that the name *Paul* was in the *third* person ; but what has changed the person ? The clauses are the same with this exception, that the pronoun *I* is omitted in the latter, and as this omission changes the person of the noun associated with it, it is evident that the noun depends entirely upon the personal pronoun for its person, of which it is itself destitute. Then if we consider it (the noun) to have the first and second persons, they are not a part of the noun really, but belong to the pronoun. There is quite a question concerning the propriety of giving the noun these persons under any circumstances. Take the example above, and supply the ellipsis, and it will read, “I—my name is Paul, —I am the Apostle,” in which clause no one would call it the first person, still I can see no difference between this sentence and the other in signification, or in *any* thing, beside the supplying of the ellipsis. From this consideration nouns have been given but one person,

the *third*, therefore no remarks have been made in the Grammar on Person of Nouns.

Pronouns.—The Distributive, Demonstrative, and Indefinite Adjective Pronouns, hardly seem to be pronouns, as they do not stand instead of a noun, and are placed before it to designate it. These classes of words will all be found among Adjectives.

Adjectives.—The class of adjectives is very numerous, sufficiently extensive to express all the qualities, conditions, and circumstances in which nouns can be supposed to differ.

There are adjectives of quality, form, condition, situation, state of action, possession, number, &c. In fact, the subdivisions of adjectives are nearly infinite, but still all agree in this very important particular:—“They are all used to distinguish nouns from each other, or to restrict their meaning.”

Verb.—The division of verbs given is recognized by many grammarians at the present day. But a few changes have been made, and also some things have been omitted. The first is the omission of the Subjunctive mode. The propriety of making it a separate mode has long been questioned, and the mode is now generally considered uncalled for, and entirely unnecessary and useless.

Indeed the only difference between the Indicative and Subjunctive modes, is confined to the present tense. “If I love” is said to be the present tense of the Subjunctive mode, but it only differs from the future Indicative by being used without the signs of future time, *shall, will*. “If I shall or will love” conveys the same idea, as is conveyed by the other. “If I must go,” we

find no auxiliary *must* in the Subjunctive mode, but still it is preceded by the sign *if*.

Now the words *if*, *though*, *unless*, &c., are very often used before verbs in the Potential mode, but the Subjunctive does not have a single auxiliary similar to any one in the Potential.—But there is no necessity of enlarging upon this, for the purpose of proving what is so manifestly absurd, as the use of the Subjunctive mode.

The Progressive Form.—“The Progressive form of the verb is inflected by prefixing the verb *to be*, through all its modes and tenses, to the present participle.” “The *Participle* is part of the verb which contains no affirmation, but expresses *being*, *doing*, or *suffering*, as a general quality of an object, and has the same construction as the ADJECTIVE.” “An ADJECTIVE is a word added to a noun to express its QUALITY.” Then, from these definitions we are to understand that a participle “expresses a quality of an object, and has the same construction as the adjective,” that is, it performs the office and has the properties of an adjective. In the sentence “James was good,” how shall we dispose of *good*? Of course all will say that it is an adjective, connected to the word which it modifies by the copula *was*. But let us change the sentence a little, and instead of the word *good*, place another which is defined as having the same construction: “James was reading.” If *reading* has the same construction as an adjective, and if *good* is an adjective modifying James, then we must conclude that *reading* modifies the same word. Still we are told that *was reading* is a verb of the progressive form, when, at the same time, the last

part of the so-called verb has been disposed of as an adjective, leaving the principal verb *was* to be parsed by itself.

Dr. Lowth, in his Grammar, the basis of Mr. Murray's, has given to verbs a passive voice, which only differs from the progressive form, in the use of the prior-present instead of the present participle, but at the same time he has given us a specimen of his method of disposing of it : "I am well pleased." He tells us that *am* is the indicative mode, present tense, of the verb *to be*, and *pleased* a participle. If they are considered separately, as distinct parts of speech, what is the necessity, or even propriety of uniting them in the inflection?

But lest the reader may think the work nearly all introduction, the author refers him, for further information to the body of the Grammar. It is not necessary to enlarge in this place upon the characteristics of the work, because it will be a bare repetition of what is found, or rather a synopsis of what is in the work.

TO TEACHERS.

THE absence of questions, remarks, exercises, examples for parsing, &c., might, at first view, be considered a great objection to any text-book, but a candid investigation of the matter will convince all, that, instead of its being an objection, it is one of the best characteristics. It has long been thought, that authors, by proposing questions for the use of teacher and pupil, have somewhat underrated the human mind; that they supposed it required a certain channel in which to run, certain bounds within which to act.—The mind seems to be dragged along from question to answer, without that deep and steady thought which insures success. It is important that we, as teachers, impress upon the minds of those committed to our charge, the great importance of studying *subjects* rather than books, and experience will prove that a regular series of questions, in a text-book, has a tendency to render the study merely *book-study*. The author was unwilling to enlarge the volume for the sake of making remarks upon unimportant matters, or discussing points upon which there happens to be a difference of opinion. It has been thought best to leave these matters entirely to teachers, to do as they may deem proper.

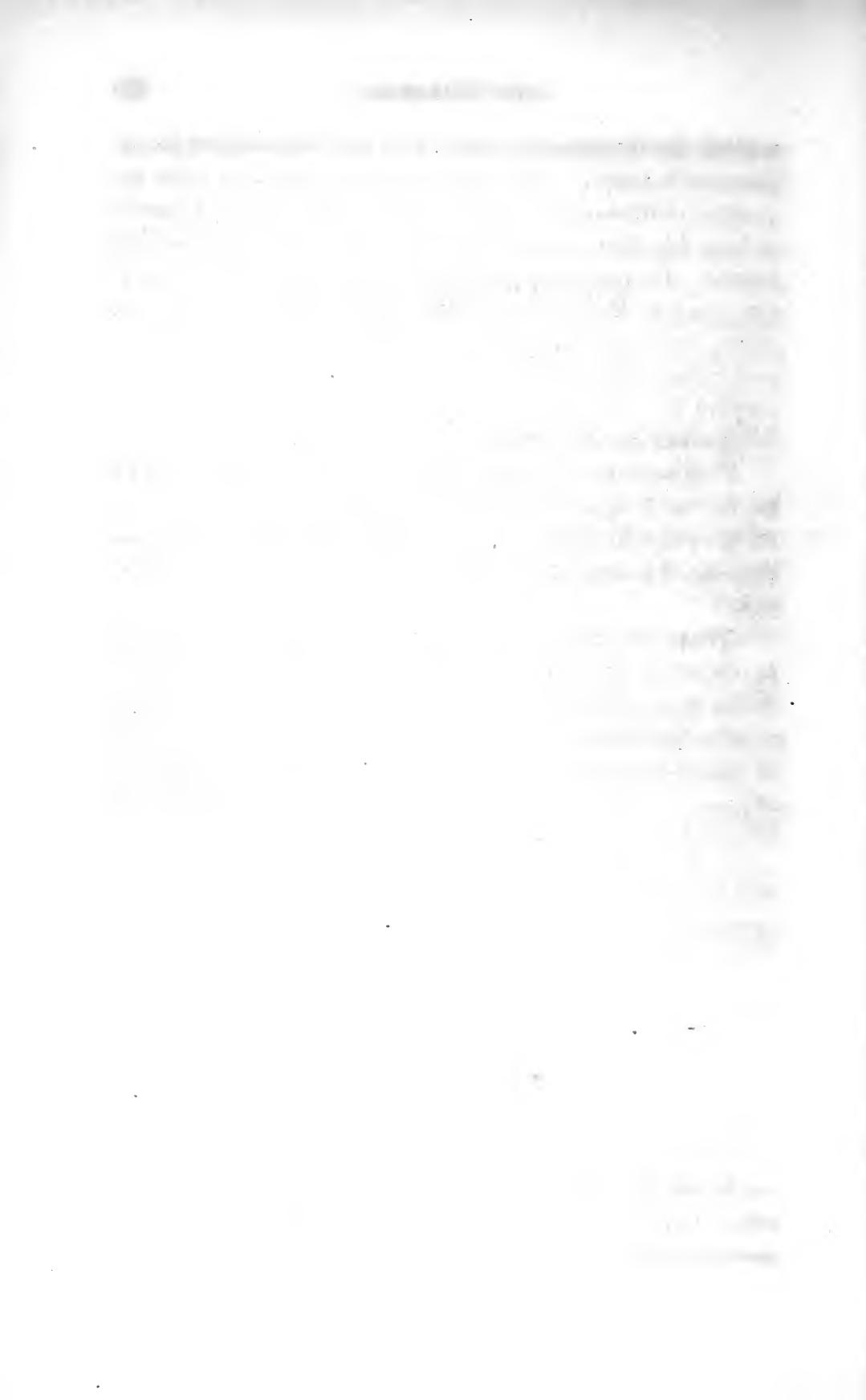
Examples are not given in abundance, because it will be found far better for the pupil to find his own, or, if he cannot find them, form as many as he may wish, than to have them given in the book. Daily composition is almost indispensable to progress in grammar; every principle must be

applied, for the principle will avail but little unless its application is made. The pupil, after he has been made acquainted with a noun, and the kind of noun, will be prepared to form his first sentences, containing nouns, common and proper. He soon becomes acquainted with the distinction of sex; then he can combine gender with his common or proper nouns, then case and number. The pupil cannot fail to understand the science of grammar if he is required to prepare for the recitation sentences which shall illustrate that part of the subject under investigation.

This work has been prepared with a very few examples for the very object that pupils might prepare them for themselves, and thereby become more interested in the study than they could in any other way.

That this little volume may be an instrument, in the hands of the zealous and faithful teachers in our Common Schools, of increasing the interest felt in the study of that deeply intellectual, very important, and interesting science of which it treats, is the sincere wish and earnest desire of

THE AUTHOR.



GRAMMATIC GUIDE.

1. GRAMMAR is the science of Language.
2. ENGLISH GRAMMAR teaches how to speak and write the *English* Language correctly.
3. English Grammar is divided into four parts;—namely, *Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*.
4. ORTHOGRAPHY treats of the sounds of letters, and the correct method of spelling words.
5. ETYMOLOGY treats of the classification, modification, and derivation of words.
6. SYNTAX treats of the proper construction of sentences.
7. PROSODY treats of the proper pronunciation of words, the poetical construction of sentences, and punctuation.

P A R T I.

1. It is deemed unnecessary to enlarge upon the subject of Orthography, as it is now taught as a separate branch in our Common Schools.

PART II.

CHAPTER I.

ETYMOLOGY.

1. ETYMOLOGY treats of the classification, derivation, and modification of words.
2. Words are divided into four classes, according to the offices which they severally perform ;—namely, *Names, Asserters, Modifiers, and Connectives*.
3. NAMES are divided into two classes ;—namely, *Primary Names* or *Nouns*, and *Secondary Names* or *Nouns*, the last of which classes comprises those words which are used instead of Primary Nouns, commonly called *Pronouns*.
4. ASSERTERS are called *Verbs* on account of their importance, and form but one class.
5. MODIFIERS are divided into two classes ;—namely, *Modifiers of Names*, and *Modifiers of Asserters*.
6. Modifiers of Names are known by the name of *Adjectives*.
7. Modifiers of Asserters or Verbs are known by the name of *Adverbs*.
8. CONNECTIVES are also divided into two classes ;—namely, *Prepositive Connectives* and *Postpositive Connectives*.
9. PREPOSITIVE Connectives are called *Prepositions*.

10. POSTPOSITIVE Connectives are called *Conjunctions*.

11. A NOUN is the name of any person, place, object, or thing, that exists, or which we may conceive to exist ;—as, *man, Boston, goodness*.

12. A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun ;—as, “ *He* learned his lesson.”

13. An ADJECTIVE is a word used to modify a noun ;—as, “ *A good boy*.”

14. A VERB is a word which expresses action, existence, or state ;—as, *I run, I am*.

15. An ADVERB is a word used to modify a Verb ;—as, “ *He walks lightly*.”

16. A PREPOSITION connects words, and shows the relation between them ;—as, “ *He departed from home*.”

17. A CONJUNCTION connects words or sentences ;—as, “ *Two and two are four*.” “ *He went to Boston, and then returned*.”

18. An INTERJECTION, so called, is a voice of Nature rather than of Art, and is not worthy of being considered a part of *speech*.

CHAPTER II.

NOUNS.

19. A NOUN is the name of any person, place, object, or thing, that exists, or which we may conceive to exist.

20. Nouns are of two kinds, *Proper* and *Common*.
21. *PROPER NOUNS* are names given to individuals ;—as, *Washington*, *Syracuse*.
22. *COMMON NOUNS* are names given to classes ;—as, *animal*, *tree*, &c.
23. Common Nouns include the following classes ;—namely, *Collective*, *Abstract*, and *Verbal* nouns.
24. A *Collective Noun*, or *Noun of Multitude*, is the name of many individuals together ;—as, *council*, *assembly*.
25. An *Abstract Noun* is the name of a quality ;—as, *hardness*, *knowledge*.
26. A *Verbal Noun* is a name formed from a Verb ;—as, *writing*, *beginning*.
27. Proper Nouns become common when used in the plural, or when preceded by a definitive ;—as, “The lives of the *Twelve Cæsars*.” “The *Cicero* of his age.”
28. Common nouns become proper when personified, and also when used as proper names ;—as, *Hail ! Liberty*. *The Grove*.

Modifications of Nouns.

29. The modification of nouns are *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*.
30. *GENDER* is the distinction of nouns with regard to sex. There are two genders, the *Masculine*, and *Feminine*.
31. The *Masculine* Gender denotes animals of the male kind ;—as, *boy*, *man*.
32. The *Feminine* Gender denotes animals of the female kind ;—as, *woman*, *girl*.
33. There are three ways of distinguishing sex :

1. By different words ;—as,

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
Boy	girl	Earl	countess
Buck	doe	Father	mother
Bull	cow	Friar	nun
Bullock	heifer	Gander	goose
Boar	sow	Horse	mare
Bachelor	maid	Husband	wife
Brother	sister	King	queen
Cock	hen	Lord	lady
Dog	bitch	Son	daughter
Drake	duck	Uncle	aunt

34. 2. By different terminations ;—as,

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
Author	authoress	Host	hostess
Actor	actress	Lion	lioness
Ambassador	ambassador	Marquis	marchioness
Arbiter	arbitress	Patron	patroness
Baron	baroness	Poet	poetess
Bridegroom	bride	Prince	princess
Benefactor	benefactress	Prophet	prophetess
Count	countess	Protector	protectress
Duke	duchess	Shepherd	shepherdess
Emperor	empress	Tiger	tigress
Enchanter	enchantress	Administrator	administratrix
Governor	governess	Executor	executrix
Heir	heiress	Testator	testatrix
Hero	heroine	Director	directrix

35. 3. By different prefixes ;—as,

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
A cock-sparrow	a hen-sparrow
A man-servant	a maid-servant
A he-goat	a she-goat
A he-bear	a she-bear
A male child	a female child
Male descendants	female descendants

36. Some nouns are either masculine or feminine ;—as, *parent, child, cousin*.

As far as the *grammatical construction* of sentences is concerned, the gender of nouns is of no importance.

NUMBER.

37. NUMBER distinguishes how many are meant, whether one or more.

38. Nouns have two numbers, the *Singular* and *Plural*.

39. The *Singular* number expresses but one object;—as, *book*, *boy*.

40. The *Plural* number signifies more objects than one;—as, *books*, *boys*.

41. The plural number is generally formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular. When the noun singular ends in *x*, *ch* *soft*, *sh*, *ss*, or *s*, *es* is added in the plural.

42. When the noun singular ends in *y*, with no other vowel in the same syllable, the termination is changed into *ies* in the plural;—as, *lady*, *ladies*.

43. When the noun singular ends in *f* or *fe*, the plural changes the termination into *ves*;—as, *life*, *lives*. There are a few exceptions, however;—as, *dwarf*, *dwarfs*, &c.

44. Some nouns have no regular rule for the formation of their plurals—

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man	men	Foot	feet
Woman	women	Mouse	mice
Child	children	Penny	pence

CASE.

45. CASE denotes the relation of nouns to other words in the same sentence.

46. Nouns have two cases, the *Nominative*, and *Objective*.

47. The *Nominative* case simply expresses the name of a thing, or the subject of a verb;—as, “The sun shines.”

48. The *Objective* case denotes the object of a transitive verb, or a preposition:—as, “We love study;” “He went to Albany.”

CHAPTER III.

PRONOUNS.

49. A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun.

50. Pronouns are divided into two classes, *Personal* and *Relative*.

51. There are five Personal Pronouns, so called, because they denote their person by their form—

I, which denotes the speaker;

You, which denotes the addressed;

He, *she*, *it*, which denote the subject of the address.

52. They have all the modifications of nouns in addition to *person*;—namely, *Gender*, *Number*, *Case*.

53. *He* refers to names of the male kind; *she*, to names of the female kind; and *it*, to things without gender.

34. *Personal* Pronouns are declined as follows:—

<i>Person.</i>	<i>Case.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	Nom. Obj.	I Me	We Us

2d Person	{ Nom. Obj.	You You	You You
	{ Nom. Obj.	He Him	They Them
3d Person	{ Nom. Obj.	She Her	They Them
	{ Nom. Obj.	It It	They Them

55. *Thou*, *thee*, and *ye*, are now seldom used, *you* being placed in their stead. What are usually called the possessive cases of the personal pronouns, have been classed among adjectives, as they are found to characterize or modify the nouns before which they are placed.

56. *Compound Personal Pronouns* are formed by adding *self* to the singular, and *selves* to the plural of the personal pronoun ;—as, *myself*, *ourselves*, &c.

57. A *Relative Pronoun* is one which relates to some name preceding it, which is called its antecedent.

58. There are three Relative Pronouns—namely, *who*, *which*, and *that*.

59. *Who* is applied to persons ;—as, “That man is happy, *who* lives virtuously.”

60. *Which* is applied to animals or things ;—as, “The bird *which* sung.”

61. *That* is used instead of *who* or *which* ;—as, “He, *that* acts wisely, deserves praise.”

62. *What* is a Compound Relative, equivalent to *that which* ;—as, “He gave me *what* I wanted.”

63. None of the Relatives are declined except *who* : Nom. *who*, Obj. *whom*.

64. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, are often compounded with *ever* and *soever* ;—as, *whoever*, *whatsoever*.

65. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, when used in asking questions, have their antecedent in the answer.

66. *As*, after *many*, *such*, and *same*, is used as a Relative.

67. The Possessive Cases of Personal Pronouns are classed among Adjectives.

68. The Pronouns, *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, should always be considered as substitutes, in the same case as the nouns would be which they represent. They are constantly used as the subjects of verbs, and the objects of verbs and prepositions ;—as, “You may imagine what kind of faith *theirs* was.” “*Yours* of the 15th May I have received.”

CHAPTER IV.

ADJECTIVES.

69. An ADJECTIVE is a word joined to a noun to modify it.

70. Adjectives may be divided into *three* general classes ; namely, *Descriptive*, *Definitive*, and *Possessive*.

71. A *Descriptive* adjective expresses some quality or property of the noun to which it is joined ;—as, “A *good* girl.”

72. A *Definitive* adjective defines or limits the meaning of the noun with which it is joined ;—as, “I saw *twenty* men.”

73. A *Possessive* adjective is one which denotes possession ;—as, *George's* book ; *his* top.

74. *Definitive* adjectives may be subdivided into two classes, the *Numeral* and *Pronominal*.

75. A *Numeral* adjective is used to express number.

76. A *Pronominal* adjective partakes of the nature of a pronoun and adjective.

77. Pronominal adjectives are again subdivided into *Demonstrative* and *Distributive*.

78. *Demonstrative Adjectives* precisely point out the objects to which they refer ;—as, “Let us investigate this subject.”

79. Demonstrative adjectives are classed among pronouns generally, and have thus been called *Demonstrative Adjective Pronouns*.

80. *Distributive Adjectives* represent the persons or things which make up a number as taken separately: they are, *each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither* ;—as, “*Each* person took a different course.” “*Every* man must account for himself.”

81. Possessive adjectives are also divided into two classes, the *Substantive* and *Pronominal*.

82. A *Substantive Possessive Adjective* is one derived from a noun ;—as, The *lady's* fan: *men's* shoes.

83. A *Pronominal Possessive Adjective* is one that partakes of the nature of a pronoun denoting possession ;—as, “Is this *your* book?”

84. This class of adjectives is composed of the possessive case of nouns and pronouns, as found in nearly all grammars.

Comparison of Adjectives.

85. The *Comparison of Adjectives* is the variation by which they express different degrees of quality.

86. There are three degrees of comparison, the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*.

87. The *Positive* degree expresses the simple state of the quality ;—as, *good*, *great*, *wise*.

88. The *Comparative* degree increases or lessens the positive ;—as, *better*, *greater*, *less* wise.

89. The *Superlative* degree increases or lessens the positive to the highest or lowest degree ;—as, *best*, *greatest*, *least* wise.

90. The Comparative degree of adjectives is formed regularly by the addition of *r* or *er* to the positive ;—as, *old*, *older*.

91. The Superlative is formed regularly by the addition of *st* or *est* to the positive ;—as *old*, *oldest*.

92. Adjectives are also compared by placing the adverbs *more* and *most* before the positive ;—as, *beautiful*, *more* beautiful, *most* beautiful. Adjectives are compared negatively by the adverbs *less* and *least* ;—as, *beautiful*, *less* beautiful, *least* beautiful.

93. A few adjectives are irregularly compared.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good	better	best
Bad	worse	worst
Fore	former	foremost or first
Little	less	least
Much	more	most
Near	nearer	nearest or next
Far	farther	farthest
Old	older or elder	oldest or eldest
Late	later	latest or last.

94. The termination *ish* may be considered in some sort a degree of comparison, by which the signification is diminished below the positive ;—as, *black*, *blackish*, or *tending to* blackness.

95. The words *too*, *very*, *exceedingly*, *rather*, are used to denote degrees of comparison.

96. In some words the Superlative is formed by adding the adverb *most* to the end of them ;—as, *undermost*, *uppermost*.

97. All adjectives do not admit of degrees of comparison ;—as, *perfect*, *universal*, *eternal*, *endless*, *right*, &c. *Possessive* and *Definitive Adjectives* are not compared ;—as, *This book*, *Henry's cap*.

CHAPTER V.

VERBS.

98. A **VERB** is a word which expresses action, existence, or state ;—as, *I run*, *I am*, *you sit*.

99. Verbs are of two kinds, *Transitive* and *Intransitive*.

100. A *Transitive* verb requires an object to complete the sense ;—as, *James loves study*.

101. An *Intransitive* verb does not require an object to complete the sense ;—as, *He sits*.

102. In the use of the *Transitive* verb, three things are always considered ; the *subject*, the *act*, and the *object* ;—as, in the sentence, “*James loves study*,” *James* is the *subject*, *loves* the *act*, and *study* the *object*.

103. In the use of the *Intransitive* verb only two things are considered, the *subject*, and the *act* ;—as, in the sentence, “*He rides* ;” *He* is the *subject*, and *rides* the *act*.

104. In regard to form, verbs are divided into *Regular*, *Irregular*, and *Defective*.

105. A *Regular* verb is one that forms its Past Tense and Prior-present participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the Present ;—as, Present, *love* ; Past, *loved* ; Prior-present participle, *loved*.

106. An *Irregular* verb is one that does not form its

Past Tense and Prior-present participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the Present ;—as, Present, *write* ; Past, *wrote* ; Perfect participle, *written*.

107. A *Defective* verb is one that wants some of its parts. To this class belong chiefly *Auxiliary* and *Impersonal* verbs.

Auxiliary Verbs.

108. An *Auxiliary Verb* is one by the help of which the principal verbs are inflected.

109. Auxiliary Verbs, when used alone, become principal verbs. When the term *Verb* occurs alone, the Principal verb is intended by it.

110. The following are auxiliary verbs : *Do, have, shall, will, may, can, must, did, had, should, would, might, could*. *Do* is used to give emphasis to an assertion. *Have* is much used as an auxiliary, although a principal verb. *Shall* implies duty or obligation ; *will*, purpose or resolution ; *may*, liberty ; *can*, ability ; *must*, necessity.

Inflection of Verbs.

111. To the Inflection of verbs, belong *Modes, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons*.

112. *Mode* denotes the *manner* in which the Verb is employed.

113. There are four Modes, the *Indicative*, the *Potential*, the *Imperative*, and *Infinitive*.

114. The *Indicative* mode simply indicates or declares a thing, or asks a question ;—as, He *loves*. *Does he love ?*

115. The *Potential* mode implies possibility, lib-

erty, power, will, or obligation to act ;—as, *I may go.* *I can read.*

116. The *Imperative* mode commands, exhorts, entreats, or permits ;—as, *Depart thou. Mind ye.*

117. The *Infinitive* mode is the first form of the verb, and is used in an indefinite manner ;—as, *to love, to read.*

Participles.

118. **PARTICIPLES** are certain modes of expressing action or being, having the same construction as **Adjectives**.

119. Participles are of three kinds, *Present, Prior-present, and Compound.*

120. The *Present* participle denotes continuation or progress, and ends in *ing* ;—as, *loving.*

121. The *Prior-present* participle denotes completion ;—as, *loved.*

122. The *Compound* participle denotes completion of an action before some other time mentioned. It is formed by prefixing the word *having* to the Prior-present participle ;—as, *Prior-present, loved ; Compound, having loved.*

Tenses.

123. **TENSES** mark the divisions of time.

124. Time is naturally divided into *present, past, and future.* An action may be represented as continuing or completed at the time spoken of; which gives rise to six Tenses, only two of which are expressed by distinct forms of the verb. The others require the aid of Auxiliaries.

125. These Tenses are called the *Prior-past, the*

Past, the *Prior-present*, the *Present*, the *Prior-future*, and the *Future*.

126. The *Prior-past* tense represents an action or event as completed prior to some other past time mentioned ;—as, “James *had learned* his lesson.”

127. The *Past* tense represents an action or event indefinitely as past ;—as, “James *learned* his lesson.”

128. The *Prior-present* tense represents an action as finished, and also conveys an allusion to the present ;—as, “James *has learned* his lesson.”

129. The *Present* tense represents an action as now taking place ;—as, “James *learns* his lesson.”

130. The *Prior-future* tense represents an action as about to take place prior to some future time mentioned ;—as, “James *will have learned* his lesson.”

131. The *Future* tense represents an action indefinitely as yet to take place ;—as, “James *will learn* his lesson.”

132. The *Past* and *Present* tenses have each two distinct forms ;—namely, the *Simple* and *Emphatic*.

The *Simple* form expresses a simple fact. The *Emphatic* form expresses a simple fact with emphasis ;—as, *Simple* form, *loves* ; *Emphatic*, *does love*.

Number and Person.

133. Verbs have two numbers, the *Singular* and *Plural*; and three persons, the *First*, *Second*, and *Third*, corresponding to the numbers and persons of *pronouns*.

Conjugation of Verbs.

134. The conjugation of a verb is the regular combination of its modes, tenses, numbers, and persons.

135. In parsing, a verb is conjugated by giving its Past and Present tenses, and its Prior-present participle; —thus,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Prior-present.</i>
Learn.	Learned.	Learned.

The Conjugation of the Regular Transitive Verb
To LEARN.

<i>Root,</i>	To learn.
<i>Principal Parts,</i>	Learn, Learned, Learned.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Prior-present Tense.
To have learned.

Present Tense.
To learn.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Prior-past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I had learned.	We had learned.
{ You had learned.	{ You had learned.
{ Thou hadst learned.	{ Ye had learned.
He had learned.	They had learned.

Past Tense (Simple form).

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I learned.	We learned.
{ You learned.	{ You learned.
{ Thou learnedst.	{ Ye learned.
He learned.	They learned.

Past Tense (Emphatic form).

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I did learn.	We did learn.
{ You did learn.	{ You did learn.
{ Thou didst learn.	{ Ye did learn.
He did learn.	They did learn.

Prior-present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I have learned.	We have learned.
{ You have learned.	{ You have learned.
{ Thou hast learned.	{ Ye have learned.
He has learned.	They have learned.

Present Tense (Simple form).

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I learn.	We learn.
{ You learn.	{ You learn.
{ Thou learnest.	{ Ye learn.
He learns.	They learn.

Present Tense (Emphatic form).

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I do learn.	We do learn.
{ You do learn.	{ You do learn.
{ Thou dost learn.	{ Ye do learn.
He does or doth learn.	They do learn.

Prior-future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>
I shall or will have learned.
{ You shall or will have learned.
{ Thou shalt or wilt have learned.
He shall or will have learned.

Plural.

We shall or will have learned.
{ You shall or will have learned.
{ Ye shall or will have learned.
They shall or will have learned.

Future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>
I shall or will learn.
{ You shall or will learn.
{ Thou shalt or wilt learn.
He shall or will learn.

Plural.

We shall or will learn.
{ You shall or will learn.
{ Ye shall or will learn.
They shall or will learn.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Prior-present Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should have learned.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should have learned.
 { Thou mayst, canst, must, mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have learned.
 He may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should have learned.

Plural.

We may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should have learned.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should have learned.
 { Ye may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should have learned.
 They may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should have learned.

Future Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should learn.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should learn.
 { Thou mayst, canst, must, mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst learn.
 He may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should learn.

Plural.

We may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should learn.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should learn.
 { Ye may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should learn.
 They may, can, must, might, could, would, *or* should learn.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.

Learn, *or* Learn thou,
or Do thou learn.

Plural.

Learn, *or* Learn ye *or*
 you, *or* Do ye learn.

PARTICIPLES.

Present,
 Prior-present,
 Compound,

Learning.
 Learned.
 Having learned.

**136. Conjugation of the Irregular Intransitive Verb
To Be.**

Root. To Be.

Principal Parts.

Present, Am. *Past, Was.* *Prior-present part., Been.*

• **INFINITIVE MODE.**

Prior-present Tense.

To have been.

Present Tense.

To be.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Prior-past Tense.

Singular.

I had been.
You had been.
Thou hadst been.
He had been.

Plural.

We had been.
You had been.
Ye had been.
They had been.

Past Tense.

Singular.

I was.
You was.
Thou wast.
He was.

Plural.

We were.
You were.
Ye were.
They were.

Prior-Present Tense.

Singular.

I have been.
You have been.
Thou hast been.
He has been.

Plural.

We have been.
You have been.
Ye have been.
They have been.

Present Tense.

Singular.

I am.
You are.
Thou art.
He is.

Plural.

We are.
You are.
Ye are.
They are.

Prior-future Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I shall or will have been. We shall or will have been.
 { You shall or will have been. { You shall or will have been.
 { Thou shalt or wilt have been. { Ye shall or will have been.
 He shall or will have been. They shall or will have been.

Future Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

I shall or will be. We shall or will be.
 { You shall or will be. You shall or will be.
 { Thou shalt or wilt be. Ye shall or will be.
 He shall or will be. They shall or will be.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Prior-present Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, must, might, could, would, or should have been.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would, or should have been.
 { Thou mayst, canst, must, mightst, couldst, wouldest, or shouldst
 have been.
 He may, can, must, might, could, would, or should have been.

Plural.

We may, can, must, might, could, would, or should have been.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would, or should have been.
 { Ye may, can, must, might, could, would, or should have been.
 They may, can, must, might, could, would, or should have
 been.

Future Tense.

Singular.

I may, can, must, might, could, would, or should be.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would, or should be.
 { Thou mayst, canst, must, mightst, couldst, wouldest, or shouldst
 be.
 He may, can, must, might, could, would, or should be.

Plural.

We may, can, must, might, could, would, or should be.
 { You may, can, must, might, could, would, or should be.
 { Ye may, can, must, might, could, would, or should be.
 They may, can, must, might, could, would, or should be.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.

Plural.

Be, or Be thou,

Be, or Be ye or you.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Prior-present,</i>	Been.
<i>Present,</i>	Being.
<i>Compound,</i>	Having been.

NOTE.—The Progressive form (so called) is formed by prefixing the irregular intransitive verb *to be*, through all its modes and tenses, to the present participle. But, as the inflection of the verb *to be* has been given, it is entirely useless to repeat it, as in parsing, the verb is to be disposed of as a *verb*, and the participle, as a *participle*; so, also, in what is termed the *Passive Voice*. Therefore, nothing need be said about its conjugation.

Irregular Verbs.

137. An *Irregular* verb is one that does not form its Past tense and Prior-present participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the present;—as,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Prior-present Part.</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke, R.*	awaked
Bake	baked	baken, R.
Bear (<i>to bring forth</i>)	bare or bore	born
Bear (<i>to carry</i>)	bore or bare	borne
Beat	beat	beaten or beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent, R.	bent, R.
Bereave	bereft, R.	bereft, R.
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bade, bid	bidden
Bind	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke, brake	broken
Breed	bred	bred
Build	built, R.	built, R.
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast

* Conjugated regularly as well as irregularly.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Prior-present Part.</i>
Catch	caught, R.	caught, R.
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave (<i>to adhere</i>)	clave, R.	cleaved
Cleave (<i>to split</i>)	clove or cleft	cloven or cleft
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clothed	clad, R.
Come	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Crow	crew, R.	crowed
Creep	crept	crept
Cut	cut	cut
Dare (<i>to venture</i>)	durst	dared
Deal	dealt, R.	dealt, R.
Dig	dug, R.	dug, R.
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Drive	drove	driven
Drink	drank	drunk
Dwell	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	gat or got	gotten or got
Gild	gilt, R.	gilt, R.
Gird	girt, R.	girt, R.
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Have	had	had
Hang	hung	hung
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove, R.	hoven, R.
Hew	hewed	hewn, R.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Prior-present Part.</i>
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held <i>or</i> holden	held <i>or</i> holden
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Knit	knit, R.	knit <i>or</i> knitted
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie (<i>to lie down</i>)	lay	lain <i>or</i> lien
Light	lighted <i>or</i> lit	lighted <i>or</i> lit
Load	loaded	laden, R.
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown, R.
Pay	paid	paid
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, R.	quit
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	rode, ridden
Ring	rang <i>or</i> rung	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven
Rot	rotted	rotten, R.
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn, R.
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape	shaped	shapen, R.
Shave	shaved	shaven, R.
Shear	shore, R.	shorn
Show	showed	shown
Shoe	shod	shod

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Prior-present Part.</i>
Shoot	shot	shot
Shrink	shrank <i>or</i> shrunk	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang <i>or</i> sung	sung
Sink	sank <i>or</i> sunk	sunk
Sit	sat	sat <i>or</i> sitten
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden
Sling	slang, slung	slung
Slink	slank, slunk	slunk
Slit	slit, R.	slit <i>or</i> slitted
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow	sowed	sown, R.
Speak	spake, spoke	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spend	spent	spent
Spill	spilt	spilt, R.
Spin	spun	spun
Spit	spat, spit	spit <i>or</i> spitten
Split	split, R.	split, R.
Spread	spread	spread
Spring	sprang <i>or</i> sprung	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stride	strode <i>or</i> strid	stridden
Strike	struck	struck <i>or</i> stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strew	strewed	strewed, strewn
Strow	strowed	strown, strowed
Swear	swore, sware	sworn
Sweat	sweat	sweat
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen, R.
Swim	swam, swum	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore <i>or</i> tare	torn
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	throve	thriven

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Prior-present Part.</i>
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden
Wax	waxed	waxen, R.
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind	wound, R.	wound
Work	wrought, R.	wrought, worked
Wring	wrung, R.	wrung
Write	wrote	written

Defective Verbs.

138. A *Defective* verb is one that wants some of its parts;—thus,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Prior-present Part.</i>
Beware
Can	could
May	might
Shall	should
Will	would
Must	must
Ought	ought
.....	quoth

CHAPTER VI.

ADVERBS.

139. An **ADVERB** is a word used to modify a verb;—as, “He walks *lightly*.”

140. *Adverbs* frequently modify adjectives;—as, “She was *remarkably* studious.”

141. Adverbs also modify other adverbs;—as, “She speaks *very* *correctly*.”

142. The perfect classification of adverbs is nearly impossible, on account of their numerous different

uses. The following are some of the most important classes.

143. *Quality or Manner* simply.—Happily, prudently, well, ill, and many others formed from adjectives by annexing *ly* or changing *le* into *ly* ;—as, wise, wisely ; honorable, honorably.

Place.—Here, there, where, elsewhere, anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, herein, whither, thither, hither, forward, downward, upward, &c.

Time.—Now, to-day, then, when, soon, often, already, before, lately, yesterday, weekly, yearly, monthly, always, &c.

Number.—Once, twice, thrice, &c.

Order.—First, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, &c.

Quantity.—Much, little, sufficiently, how much, how great, enough, &c.

Doubt.—Perhaps, possibly, peradventure, perchance.

Affirmation.—Verily, truly, undoubtedly, yea, yes, certainly, &c.

Negation.—Nay, no, not, nowise, by no means, in no wise, not at all, &c.

Interrogation.—How, why, when, wherefore, &c.

Comparison.—More, most, better, best, worse, worst, less, least, &c.

144. Some adverbs admit of comparison like adjectives ;—as, soon, sooner, soonest, wisely, more wisely, most wisely ; much, more, most, &c.

145. Short phrases expressing time, place, manner, &c., are called adverbial phrases, and are parsed as simple adverbs ;—as, in short, in fine, now and then, by and by, to and fro, long ago, &c.

146. Some adverbs *connect* as well as *qualify* ;—as, “I was absent *when* he came.”

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

147. PREPOSITIONS connect words and show the relation between them.

148. The following list comprises nearly all the principal prepositions :

About	Beside	Past
Above	Besides	Round
Across	Between	Since
After	Betwixt	Through
Against	Beyond	Throughout
Along	By	Till
Amid	Down	To
Amidst	From	Towards
Among	In	Under
Amongst	Into	Underneath
Around	Instead of	Unto
Aslant	Near	Upon
At	Nigh	Up
Athwart	Of	With
Before	Off	Within
Behind	On	Without
Below	Over	
Beneath	Out of	

149. Every preposition requires an objective case after it; but when a preposition does not govern an objective case, it becomes an adverb;—as, “He walks *about*.”

150. In such phrases as, *cast up*, *hold out*, the words *up*, *out*, must be considered as a part of the verb.

CHAPTER VIII.

CONJUNCTIONS.

151. A CONJUNCTION connects words and sentences;—as, “ You *and* I must remain, *but* Henry can go *and* see them.”

The words belonging to this part of speech cannot satisfactorily be classed.

152. The following is a list of the words which are most frequently used as conjunctions :

And	If	Then
Although	Lest	Therefore
As	Neither	Though
Because	Nor	Unless
Both	Notwithstanding	Wherefore
But	Or	Yet
Either	Since	
For	Than	

CHAPTER IX.

INTERJECTIONS.

153. The INTERJECTION is a voice of nature, rather than of art, used merely to express some passion or emotion, but they are hardly worthy of being placed among the “ Parts of Speech.”

154. The following are the words most used for this purpose :

Ah!	Ha!	Oh!
Alas!	Lo!	Pshaw!
Fee!	O!	Ho!

155. Other parts of speech are frequently used to

perform the office of Interjections ;—as, hark ! wonderful ! strange ! mercy !

They are, however, different parts of speech. When the ellipsis is supplied they will always be found to belong to other classes of words.

CHAPTER X.

DERIVATION.

156. **DERIVATION** is that part of **Etymology** which treats of the origin and primary signification of words.

157. All, or nearly all, the words of any cultivated language may be reduced to families ;—as, accede, recede, succeed, exceed, proceed, secede, precede, intercede, concede, succeeding, proceeding, interceding, &c. Impede, impediment, pedestal, pediment, pedal, pedicle, expeditious, expedient, &c.

158. **WORDS** are divided into two classes ;—*Primitive* and *Derivative*.

159. A *Primitive* word is one which is not derived from any other word or words in the language ;—as, *man*, *like*.

160. A *Derivative* word is one which is derived from some other word or words in the language ;—as, *manly*, *dislike*.

161. Adjectives denoting *plenty* are derived from nouns by adding *y* ;—as, *wealth*, *wealthy*; *might*, *mighty*.

162. Adjectives denoting the *material* of which a thing is made, are derived from nouns by adding *en* ;—as, *gold*, *golden* ; *wood*, *wooden*.

163. Adjectives denoting *abundance* are derived from nouns by adding *ful* ;—as, *sin*, *sinful*.

164. Adjectives denoting *want* are derived from nouns by adding *less* ;—as, *thought*, *thoughtless*.

165. Adjectives denoting *likeness* are derived from nouns by adding *ly* ; as, *man*, *manly*.

166. Substantives or nouns are derived from adjectives, by adding *ness* ; as, *white*, *whiteness* ; also by adding *ship* ; as, *hard*, *hardship*.

167. Substantives are derived from other substantives by adding *hood*, *ship*, *ery*, *wick*, *dom*, *ian*, *rick*, *ment*, *age*.

168. Nouns, formed by adding *hood*, denote character or qualities ;—as, *boy*, *boyhood* ; *man*, *manhood*.

169. Nouns, formed by adding *ship*, denote employment, state, or condition ;—as, *friend*, *friendship*.

170. Nouns, formed by adding *ery*, denote action or habit ;—as, *slave*, *slavery* ; *fool*, *foolery*.

171. Nouns, formed by adding *wick*, *dom*, and *rick*, denote dominion, jurisdiction, or condition ;—as, *bailiwick*, *bishoprick* ; *kingdom*, *freedom*.

172. Nouns, formed by adding *ian*, denote profession ;—as, *physic*, *physician*.

173. Nouns, formed by adding *ment* and *age*, denote act or habit ;—as, *command*, *commandment* ; *coin*, *coinage*.

174. Some nouns have the form of diminutives, and are formed by adding the terminations *kin*, *ling*, *ock*, *el* ; as, *lamb*, *lambkin* ; *goose*, *gosling* ; *hill*, *hillock* ; *cock*, *cockerel*.

175. Nearly all the derivative words of our language are formed by the aid of *prefixes* and *suffixes*.

176. A **PREFIX** is a letter, syllable, or word added to the beginning of some other word, to vary or modify its primitive meaning.

177. A **SUFFIX** is a letter, syllable, or word joined to the end of some other word, to vary its meaning.

178. Two or more prefixes are sometimes found in the same words ;—as, *rediscover*, RE and DIS.

179. Two or more suffixes are sometimes found in the same word ;—as, *manfully*, FUL and LY.

ENGLISH PREFIXES.

A. Signifies, on, to, in, at ;—as, *ashore*, *afar*, *asleep*.

BE. Signifies about, on, over ;—as, *bedew*, *be-daub*.

BY. Signifies near, close, upon, over ;—as, *by-stander*, *bypath*.

FOR. Signifies from or against ;—as, *forbid*, *forbear*.

FORE. Signifies before ;—as, *foresee*.

MIS. From miss, to err, signifies wrong ;—as, *misguide*.

OVER. Signifies above, beyond ;—as, *overflow*.

OUT. Signifies without, beyond ;—as, *outrun*, *out-side*.

UN. Signifies privation or negation ;—as, *unload*, *unknown*.

UNDER. Signifies beneath ;—as, *underlay*.

UP. Signifies aloft, on high ;—as, *uprear*.

WITH. Signifies opposition ;—as, *withstand*.

LATIN PREFIXES.

180. *Prefixes derived from the Latin, and their signification.*

A, AB, or ABS. Signifies *from* ;—as, *abstract*, to take from ; *abduction*, the carrying from or away.

AD. Signifies *to* ;—as, *adjoin*, to join to ; when **AD** is prefixed to words beginning with *c, f, g, l, n, p, r, s, t*, the letter *d* is changed into those letters respectively ;—as, *accede*, instead of *adcede* ; *affix*, instead of *adfix* ; *aggrieve*, instead of *adgrieve* ; *allocation*, instead of *adlocation* ; *annumerate*, instead of *adnumerate* ; *Appending*, instead of *adpending* ; *arrest*, instead of *adrest* ; *assign*, instead of *adsign* ; *attract*, instead of *adtract*.

AMBI. Signifies *both, two, doubtful* ;—as, *ambiguous*, *ambidexter*.

ANTE. Signifies *before* ;—as, *antedate*, *antecede*, to date before, to go before.

BENE. Signifies *well* ;—as, *benevolence*, *benediction*, doing good, speaking well.

CIRCUM. Signifies *around* ;—as, *circumnavigate*, to sail around.

CON. Signifies *together* ;—as, *convoke*, to call together. **CON** is changed into **COL**, **COR**, when the word, with which it is compounded, begins with *l, g*, or *r* ;—as *collect*, *correlative*. **COM** and **COG** have the same signification as **CON** ;—as, *compress*, to press together ; *cognate*, joined together by blood.

CONTRA. Signifies *against* ;—as, *contradict*, to speak against. It is sometimes changed to **COUNTER** ;—as, *counteract*, to act against.

DE. Signifies *from* ;—as, *deduce*, to draw from ; *dethrone*, to take from the throne.

DI, DIS, DIF. Signify *separation* :—as, *disarm*, to deprive of arms. They sometimes signify *negation* ;—as, *dishonest*, not honest.

E, EX, EF, EC. Signify *out, out of, from* ;—as, *exclude*, to shut out ; *emerge*, to come out.

EXTRA. Signifies *beyond* ;—as, *extraordinary*, beyond that which is ordinary, or more than ordinary.

IN. Signifies *not* when prefixed to adjectives ;—as, *ignoble*, not noble. When prefixed to verbs, &c., it gives force to the signification ;—as, *infix*, to fasten. **IM**, **IG**, **IL**, **IR**, have the same properties, and perform the same office.

INTER. Signifies *among* ;—as, *intermix*, to mix among ; *interweave*, *intermingle*, to weave among, to mingle among.

JURIS. Signifies *right*, *legal* ;—as, *Jurisdiction*, legal right over ; *jurisprudence*, legal science.

MALE, **MAL**. Signify *bad*, *evil* ; as, *malediction*, speaking evil ; *malefactor*, a doer of wrong.

MANU. Signifies a *hand* ;—as, *manufacture*, to make by hand.

MULTI. Signifies *many* ;—as, *multiform*, many forms ; *multiplex*, many-fold.

NON. Denotes *negation* ;—as, *nonsense*, not sense.

OB, **OC**, **OF**, **OP**. Signify *before*, *against*, *towards*, *in*, or *on* ;—as, *objection*, brought against ; *occur*, to come before ; *offence*, *oppose*.

OMNI. Signifies *all* ;—as, *omnipotent*, all-powerful.

PER. Signifies *through* or *by* ;—as, *pervade*, to go through ; *perchance*, by chance.

POST. Signifies *after* ;—as, *postscript*, an after writing.

PRE. Signifies *before* ;—as, *precede*, to go before.

PRO. Signifies *for*, *forth*, or *forward* ;—as, *pronoun*, for a noun ; *produce*, to bring forth ; *propel*, to drive forward.

RE. Signifies *again* or *back* ;—as, *reenter*, to enter again ; *recall*, to call back.

SE. Denotes *separation* ;—as, *secede*, to withdraw from.

SUB. Signifies *under* ;—as, *subscribe*, to write under. It changes *b* into *c, f, g, p*, when compounded with words beginning with these letters ;—as, *succeed*, *suffuse*, *suggest*, *support*.

SUPER. Signifies *beyond*, *above*, *upon* ;—as, *superfine*, over or above fine ; *supernatural*, beyond natural.

SUPRA, SUR. Signify *beyond*, *above* ;—as, *supramundane*, above the world ; *surcharged*, overcharged.

SOLI. Signifies *alone* ;—as, *solitary*, living alone ; *solifidian*, faith alone.

SINE. Signifies *without* ;—as, *sine-die*, without day.

TRANS. Signifies *over*, *across*, *beyond* ;—as, *transfer*, to carry over ; *trans-Atlantic*, beyond the Atlantic.

TRI. Signifies *three* ;—as, *triangle*, three angles.

GREEK PREFIXES.

181. *Prefixes derived from the Greek, and their significations.*

A or AN. Denote *privation* ;—as, *atheist*, without a God ; *anarchy*, without government.

AMPHI. Signifies *about*, *around* ;—as, *amphitheatre* ; an edifice in a circular form.

ARCH. Signifies *chief* ;—as, *archangel*, an angel of the highest order, or a chief angel ; *archbishop*, a chief bishop.

ASTRO. Signifies a *star* ;—as, *astronomy*, the law of stars.

AUTO. Signifies *one's self*—as, *autograph*, one's own hand-writing.

ANTI. Signifies *against* ;—as, *anti-slavery*.

CATA. Signifies *against* ;—as, *Catabaptist*, one who opposes baptism.

DIA, DI. Signify *through* ;—as, *diameter*, measuring through.

GEO. Signifies the *earth* ;—as, *geography*, a description of the earth.

MONO. Signifies *single* ;—as, *monosyllable*, one syllable.

ORTHO. Signifies *right* ;—as, *orthography*, writing correctly.

PHILO, PHIL. Signify a *lover* ;—as, *philosopher*, a lover of wisdom ; *philanthropist*, a lover of mankind.

SYN. Signifies *together, with* ;—as, *synthesis*, putting together. It takes the forms **Sy, SYL, SYM** ;—as *system*, *syllable*, *sympathy*.

THEO. Signifies *God* ;—as, *theology*, word of God.

SUFFIXES.

A **SUFFIX** is a letter, syllable, or word, joined to the end of another word, to vary its meaning.

ABLE, IBLE, BLE. Imply power, and may be rendered by the expressions, *that may be, can be, capable of being, fit to be* ;—as, *payable*, that may be paid ; *audible*, that may be heard ; *flexible*, that may be bent.

ANCE, ANCY, ENCE, ENCY. Denote *state or condition of, act of, result of* ;—as, *dependence* or *dependency*, the state of hanging from a supporter ; *contrivance*, the act of inventing.

ANT, ENT. Denote *person or thing* ;—as, *defendant*, one who defends ; *president*, one who presides.

In most other cases they denote *power* or *quality* ;—as, *refulgent*, the property of shining.

ATION, TION, ION, SION, CATION. Denote the *act* or *state of being* ;—as, *union*, the act of joining ; *civilization*, the act of civilizing ; *conviction*, the act of convicting ; *admission*, the act of admitting.

AR, ARY, ARD, ADO, ATE, IVE, Oso, STER. Denote *person* or *thing* ;—as, *luminary*, that which gives light ; *beggar*, one who begs ; *drunkard*, one who gets drunk ; *bravado*, one who boasts ; *graduate*, one who graduates ; *captive*, one who is captured ; *virtuoso*, one who is skilled in the fine arts ; *teamster*, one who drives a team.

AN, ER, OR, IAN, CIAN, AST, ESS, RESS, EE, EER, Ist, ITE, INE, SAN, ZEN, IX. Denote the *person who*, in nouns ;—as, *historian*, one who understands history.

AR, ARY, Ic, Ac, AL, ICAL, ILE, INE, TIAL, CIAL. Denote *like*, *pertaining to*, *belonging to* ;—as, *lunar*, pertaining to the moon ; *planetary*, pertaining to the planets.

AGE. Denotes *rank* ;—as, *parentage*, the rank of a parent.

IVE. As a termination of adjectives, denotes *tendency to*, *relation to*, *power of* ;—as, *expansive*, having the power to expand.

ITY, CY, TY. Denote, when the terminations of nouns, *the state*, *condition*, *thing itself*, *quality of*, *power of* ;—as, *humility*, the state of being humble.

MENT. Denotes *state*, *act*, *effect* ;—as, *commandment*, the act of commanding.

LOCK. Denotes *union* ;—as, *padlock*, *wedlock*.

It would hardly be expedient to continue this list farther, as the suffixes do not admit of a complete classification, and only a few of the most common ones are found in our common grammars. See Town's Analysis.

PART III.

SYNTAX.

1. SYNTAX treats of the proper construction of sentences,—and embraces government, agreement, and relation of words.

2. GOVERNMENT is that power which one part of speech has over another, in directing its mode, tense, number, person, or case.

3. AGREEMENT is the correspondence of one word to another in gender, number, person, or case.

4. RELATION OF WORDS, is their dependence or connection, according to the sense, or construction of the sentence.

SENTENCES.

5. A SENTENCE is an assemblage of words making complete sense.

6. SENTENCES are of two kinds, *simple* and *compound*.

7. A *simple* sentence consists of only one subject and predicate ;—as, “ *Idleness is* an enemy to happiness.

8. A *compound* sentence consists of two or more simple sentences connected together ;—as, “ We should deal justly, love mercy, and walk humbly with God.”

9. The SUBJECT is that of which something is affirmed ;—as, “ *Truth* will prevail.”

10. The PREDICATE expresses that which is affirmed of the subject ;—as, “ Truth *will prevail* ;” *truth* is the subject, and *will prevail* the predicate.

11. A PHRASE is a combination of words not making a complete sentence ;—as, “ *Esteeming you highly*.”

12. An ADJUNCT is a word, or several words, used to explain or modify other words ;—as, “ *He bent beneath the headsman’s stroke*.” The whole phrase, *beneath the headsman’s stroke*, is an adjunct of *bent* : *the* and *headsman’s* are also adjuncts of *stroke*.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

13. The SUBJECT is either grammatical or logical.

14. The *grammatical* subject is either some noun, or word standing instead of a noun, in the nominative case.

15. The *logical* subject consists of the grammatical subject with its modifiers ;—as, “ *The hand of the diligent maketh rich*.” “ *Hand*” is the grammatical subject, and “ *the hand of the diligent*” is the logical subject.

16. The SUBJECT is either *simple* or *compound*.

17. A *simple* subject is a single noun, or word standing instead of a noun, with its modifiers—as, “ *Modesty wins the heart*.” “ *The righteousness of the upright* shall deliver them.”

18. A *compound* subject consists of two or more simple subjects, having but one predicate ;—as, “ *Honor and shame from no condition rise*.”

19. The PREDICATE is either grammatical or logical.

20. The *grammatical* predicate is the verb alone ;—as, “ *Indolence destroys* all our happiness.”

21. The *logical* predicate consists of the grammatical predicate with its modifiers ;—as, “ *Indolence destroys all our happiness.*” “ *Destroys*” is the grammatical predicate, and “ *destroys all our happiness*” the logical predicate.

22. The *predicate*, like the subject, is either *simple* or *compound*.

23. A *simple* predicate consists of a simple finite verb ;—as, “ *Life is short.*”

24. A *compound* predicate consists of one or more simple predicates, belonging to the same subject ;—as, “ *Education elevates, expands, and enriches the mind.*”

25. When the verb is transitive, the logical predicate always contains an object, which is the thing affected by the action of the verb. It is *grammatical* or *logical*.

26. The *grammatical* object is the objective case alone ;—as, “ *Man often mistakes his best interests.*”

27. The *logical* object is the grammatical object with its modifiers ;—as, “ *Man often mistakes his best interests.*” *Interests* is the grammatical object, and *his best interests* the logical object. “ *We should obey the laws of our country.*” *Laws* is the grammatical object, and *laws of our country* the logical object.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

28. The RULES OF SYNTAX are those laws which determine the government, agreement, relation, and arrangement of words in sentences.

RULE I.—*Nouns and Pronouns.*

29. A noun or pronoun, when it is the subject of a verb, is in the nominative case.

ILLUS.—“The rainbow strides the earth and air.” *Rainbow*, being the subject, is in the nominative case. In parsing, we say it is the subject of the verb *strides*.

RULE II.—*Nouns and Pronouns.*

30. A noun or pronoun, when the name of a person or thing addressed, is in the nominative case independent.

ILLUS.—“Ye *winds*, ye unseen *currents* of the air,
Softly ye played a few brief hours ago.”
Winds and *currents* are the names of things addressed, and are in the nominative case independent.

RULE III.—*Nouns and Pronouns.*

31. A noun or pronoun, joined with a participle, and independent of the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case absolute.

ILLUS.—“The *storm having abated*, we pursued our journey.”

RULE IV.—*Nouns and Pronouns.*

32. The object of a preposition or a transitive verb, is in the objective case.

ILLUS.—“I have no desire for wealth.” *Desire* is the object of the verb *have*, and *wealth* is the object of the preposition *for*.

RULE V.—*Nouns and Pronouns.*

33. Two or more nouns or pronouns, in the same sentence, signifying the same thing, are put, by apposition, in the same case.

ILLUS.—“*Cicero, the orator*, flourished in the time of *Catiline, the conspirator*.” *Cicero, orator*, referring to the same person, are put by apposition in the same case; also, *Catiline and conspirator*.

RULE VI.—*Pronouns.*

34. Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender and number.

ILLUS.—“If my friend needeth, I will assist *him*.” *Him* agrees with *friend* in number and gender.

RULE VII.—*Adjectives.*

35. Adjectives belong to the nouns which they modify.

ILLUS.—“A contented man enjoys the greater portion of his life.” *A, contented*, modify *man*; *the, greater*, modify *portion*; and *his* modifies *life*.

RULE VIII.—*Verbs.*

36. A verb and its subject must agree in number and person.

ILLUS.—“*Want* of occupation *prevents* the enjoyment of life.” *Want* being of the third person, or subject of the address, and of the singular number, the verb *prevents* must be also.

RULE IX.—*Verbs and Nouns.*

37. Two or more nouns or pronouns of the singular number, connected by the conjunction *and*, require verbs and pronouns in the plural.

ILLUS.—“Honor and shame from no condition *rise*.” The nouns *honor* and *shame*, connected by *and*, have a plural verb, *rise*. “*Wealth* and *want* are both temptations; *they* cherish pride and discontent.”

RULE X.—*Verbs and Pronouns.*

38. Two or more nouns or pronouns, in the singular, connected by the conjunction *or* or *nor*, require verbs and pronouns in the singular.

ILLUS.—“*My father or brother will go*, but *he* will soon return.”

RULE XI.—*Infinitives.*

39. The infinitive mode may follow a verb, adjective, noun, pronoun, or adverb, on which it depends.

ILLUS.—“*We may ever dare to perform our duty.*” The infinitive *to perform* depends upon *may dare* in this case. “*It is pleasant to ramble over hill and dale.*”

RULE XII.—*Participles.*

40. Participles refer to nouns or pronouns, and modify them.

ILLUS.—“*The militia advancing met the enemy returning.*” *Advancing* refers to militia, and *returning* refers to enemy.

RULES XIII.—*Adverbs.*

41. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

ILLUS.—“*He listened attentively.*” “*His prospects became decidedly better.*” “*The lecturer treated the subject very scientifically.*”

OBSERVATIONS ON RULES.

RULE I.—*Nouns and Pronouns.*

42. A noun or pronoun, when it is the subject of a verb, is in the nominative case;—as, “*Thou* shalt not bear false witness.”

43. A verb in the infinitive mode sometimes performs the office of the noun or pronoun in the nominative;—as, “*To be* contents his natural desire.” Here, and in all such cases, the

infinitive mode should be disposed of in the same manner as though it were a noun. It is called a verbal noun.

44. A sentence is frequently used as the subject of the finite verb ;—as, “*Do unto others as ye would that others should do unto you,*” is the golden rule of our Saviour.”

45. The nominative is sometimes omitted ;—as, “*Lives* there, who loves his pain ?” The subject of the imperative is frequently omitted ;—as, “*Strike till the last arm'd foe expires !*” “*Come to the bridal chamber, Death !*”

46. The nominative generally precedes the verb in declaratory and conditional sentences ; but it usually follows the principal verb or an auxiliary, in interrogative and imperative sentences ;—as, “*Must education be acquired by ourselves ?*” “*Seest thou shadows sailing by ?*” “*Come thou, without delay.*”

47. The nominative is also placed after the verb when the sentence is introduced by the adverb *there* ;—as, “*There is no longer any room for hope.*”

RULE II.—*Nouns and Pronouns.*

48. A noun or pronoun, when the name of a person or thing addressed, is in the nominative case independent ;—as, “*Hail ! holy Light, offspring of heaven, first-born.*” *Light* is in the nominative case independent, being neither the subject nor object of a verb.

“*Yet once more, O ! ye laurels, and once more*

• *Ye myrtles brown, with ivy never sere.*”

Nouns denoting time, measure, distance, direction, or place, are in the nominative independent when they do not depend upon any other word.

RULE III.—*Nouns and Pronouns.*

49. A noun or pronoun, joined with a participle, and independent of the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case absolute ;—as, “*The ship having sailed, we pursued our journey by land.*” “*The sailing of the ship*” was independent of the journey,” although the “journey” depended somewhat upon “the sailing of the ship.” “*We being exceedingly tossed the next day, they lightened the ship.*” In English, the absolute case is the nominative. In the sentence above, the pronoun *we* of the first person, joined to the participle *being*, is not the subject of any verb, nor is it connected with any word of which it can be the regimen,—but it is in the nominative case.

RULE IV.—*Nouns and Pronouns.*

50. The object of a transitive verb, or a preposition, is in the objective case ;—as, “*He tasted death for every man.*” *Death* is the object of the action expressed by the verb *tasted*,

by which it is governed, and *man* is the object of relation expressed by the preposition *for*, and is governed by it.

51. The objective case may be any word or sentence used for or instead of a noun ;—as, “He will punish the *bad*.” “You perceive *how few of your many friends are left*.”

52. The infinitive mode is frequently used as the object of a verb ;—as, “He loves *to study*,” i. e. “he loves *study*.”

53. The objective case generally follows the verb.

54. The relative, when made the object of the verb, generally precedes it ;—as, “*Whom* do I love so much?” “*Whom* ye ignorantly worship, *him* declare I unto you.”

55. The objective is sometimes found before the verb by which it is governed, in poetry ;—as,

“ Whoso with patient and inquiring mind

Would seek the *stream* of science to ascend ;”

i. e. Would seek to ascend the stream of science.

“ The sailor, midst the dangerous main,

Full many a lovely *region* sees ;”

i. e. Sees full many a lovely region.

56. Some transitive verbs govern two objectives ;—as, “He taught *me* *grammar*.” “They gave *him* *vinegar* to drink.” “They elected *him* *president*.”

57. Some intransitive verbs are followed by the objective case of a noun of the same or a kindred signification ;—as, “Let us *run* the *race*, which is set before us.” “If any man see his brother *sin* a *sin*, which is not unto death.”

58. In poetry, an intransitive verb is sometimes followed by a pronoun in the objective case ;—as, “I’d sit *me* down and cry.”

RULE V.—*Nouns and Pronouns.*

59. Two or more nouns or pronouns, in the same sentence, signifying the same thing, are put by apposition in the same case ;—as, “*John* the *Baptist* was beheaded.”

60. A noun is sometimes in apposition with a phrase or sentence ;—as, “*They* banished *me* from my country ; a wrong which I can never forget.”

61. A noun denoting a whole, is sometimes followed by words in apposition with it, denoting the parts of which it is composed ;—as, “The *scholars* were all engaged, *some* in reading, *some* in spelling, and *others* in writing.” “*They* fled, *every man* to his tent.”

RULE VI.—*Pronouns.*

62. Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand in gender and number ;—as, “The *rivers*, which flow into the sea.” “*Vice*, which no man practices with impunity, proved his destruction.” “*Thou*, who writest, didst speak.”

63. The relative *who* is used in referring to persons, *which* to animals and things, and *that* to either persons, animals, or things.

64. "Beware of false prophets, which come to you in sheep's clothing." In this sentence, *which* is improperly used instead of *who*. It should be, "Beware of false prophets, *who* come to you in sheep's clothing."

65. The relative should be placed as near the antecedent as possible, to avoid ambiguity.

66. When there are two antecedents, care is necessary in referring the relative to its proper antecedent. In some cases the termination of the verb, by indicating the person of the relative, shows the antecedent;—as, "I am the man who commands you." If *who* refers to *I*, it should read, "I who command you, am the man;" but if *who* refers to *man*, then is the sentence correct.

67. The relative sometimes refers to a whole clause as its antecedent;—as, "*The resolution was passed by the meeting, which excited much jealousy.*" i. e. The passage of the resolution excited much jealousy.

68. The relative sometimes refers to a verb for its antecedent;—as, "*He loved to read, which improved his mind.*"

69. The antecedent pronoun of the third person is often omitted;—as, "Who steals my purse, (he) steals trash." "Whom he would, he slew;" i. e. "*Those whom he would, he slew.*"

70. "I will give it to whomsoever may ask." In this sentence, "whomsoever" has been said to have a double construction; that is, it is both the object of relation expressed by the preposition *to*, and the subject of the verb *may ask*. But the relative must be the subject of the verb *may ask*, whereas it is in the objective case. It cannot therefore be the subject of *may ask*, neither can it be governed by the preposition *to*, and is therefore a solecism. It should read, "I will give it to him, whosoever may ask."

71. The relatives *who* and *which* are sometimes understood;—as, "The friend I visited yesterday has left." "The friend (whom) I visited yesterday, has left."

72. Both antecedent and relative are often understood after a comparative;—as, "The damage was much less than we expected." "The damage was much less than *that which* we expected."

RULE VII.—*Adjectives.*

73. Adjectives belong to the nouns which they modify;—as, "*An honest man.*"

74. Adjectives sometimes modify other adjectives, when the latter are formed from nouns;—as, "*The good boy's hat.*"

75. Adjectives are often used as nouns;—as, “The *good* shall be saved.” “The *honest* have prosperity.” They are disposed of in the same manner as nouns.

76. Adjectives are often used as adverbs, and as such modify the same parts of speech;—as, “Drink *deep* or taste not the Pierian spring.” “*Soft* sighed the flute.”

77. The adjective is commonly placed before the noun which it modifies;—as, “A *generous* man.” “A *gallant* warrior.”

78. The adjective follows the noun, when it is intimately connected with some other word by which its meaning is modified;—as, “A man, *faithful* to his employer.” For the sake of emphasis;—as, “Hail! bard *divine*!” “Alexander the *great*.” “Wisdom *infinite*.”

79. When there are two or more adjectives connected with the same noun, they sometimes follow it;—as, “A man, *wise, good, and merciful*.”

80. When the subject and attribute are connected by the verb *to be*;—as, “That man is *happy*.”

81. When the adjective expresses some circumstance of the object of a transitive verb;—as, “Drunkenness renders its victim *miserable*.”

RULE VIII.—*Verbs.*

82. The verb and its subject must agree in number and person.

83. Every verb, except a verb in the infinitive mode, or a participle, must have a subject or nominative expressed or understood. Every nominative, when the subject, must have a verb expressed or understood, except the case absolute and independent.

84. When the verb comes between two nouns, particular regard must be had to that which is more naturally its subject, and to that which stands nearer the verb;—as, “His *meat* was locusts and wild honey.” “The wages of sin is *death*.” One of the nouns is the nominative to the verb, and the other nominative after the verb.

85. The verb generally follows its subject, but precedes in the following cases. When the sentence is interrogative;—as, “*Lives* Webster where he did?” When a command is given;—as, “*Read* thou.” When a wish is expressed;—as, “*Long live* the king.” When a supposition is expressed without the connective if;—as, “*Were* I a scholar.” When the sentence is expressive of vehement emotion;—as, “Great is our God.” “Blessed are they that mourn.”

RULE IX.—*Verbs and Pronouns.*

86. Two or more nouns or pronouns in the singular number,

connected by the conjunction *and*, require verbs and pronouns in the plural;—as, “Both life and death *are* uncertain.” “James and Henry *were* good boys, and *they* loved to study.”

87. When two or more nouns singular, denoting the same thing, are taken conjointly, the verb must be singular;—as, “The renowned patriot and statesman *has* fallen.”

88. When two or more nouns singular, denoting different things, are taken conjointly, and are modified by a distributive adjective, they require a verb singular;—as, “Every man, woman and child, *was* saved.”

89. When the nouns or pronouns are of different persons, the first person is preferred to the second, and the second to the third;—as, “He and *I* share it between us.”

90. The conjunction is often omitted;—as, “Honor, justice, religion itself, *were* disregarded.”

RULE X.—*Verbs and Pronouns.*

91. Two or more nouns or pronouns singular, connected by the conjunction *or* or *nor*, require verbs and pronouns in the singular;—as, “Man’s happiness or misery is, in a great measure, in his own power.” “Man is not like a watch or a clock, which *moves* as *it is* moved.”

92. When singular pronouns of different persons, or a noun and a pronoun of the first or second person, are connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees in person with the one nearer it;—as, “I or *you* *are* guilty.”

93. When a noun or pronoun singular, is connected by *or* or *nor* to a noun or pronoun plural, the verb must be plural;—as, “Neither poverty nor riches *were* injurious to him.”

RULE XI.—*Infinitives.*

94. The infinitive mode may follow a verb, adjective, noun, pronoun, or adverb, on which it depends;—as, “We should *strive to do* good.” “It is *pleasant to view* the wonders of God.” “We have a strong *desire to improve*.”

95. The infinitive sometimes depends upon a whole sentence;—as, “Henry went on a voyage to sea, *to improve* his health.”

96. The infinitive sometimes depends upon a preposition;—as, “The workmen *were about to depart*.”

97. The infinitive is sometimes used absolutely;—as, “*To tell the truth*, I did it.”

98. A verb in the infinitive is used without its sign *to*, after the verbs bid, dare, let, see, feel, make, need, and hear;—as, “Bid him *depart*.” “He dare not *do* it.” “Let me *go* home.”

99. The infinitive is sometimes used without its sign *to*, after help, behold, perceive, know, and have;—as, “Help me

prepare for my departure." "Would you have me *disregard* my warmest friends."

100. The infinitive may be the subject or object of a verb. (See Rules 1, 43, and Rules 4, 52.)

RULE XII.—*Participles.*

101. Participles refer to nouns or pronouns to modify them.

102. Participles are often used as nouns;—as, "Heard you the *howling* of the blast?"

103. Participles sometimes perform, at the same time, the office of a noun and verb;—as, "I could not refrain from *speak-ing* the truth." As a noun it is the *object* of relation expressed by *from*, and as a verb governs *truth*.

104. Participles are often used *absolutely*;—as, "This conduct, *considering* from whom it came, is unworthy of my notice."

105. Participles, except in the cases mentioned above, perform precisely the same office as adjectives, and should be disposed of in the same manner;—as,

"Thy tones come *pouring* on my *leaping* heart,
And my *stirr'd* spirit hears thee with a start,
As boyhood's old *remembered* shout."

Pouring modifies *tones*; *leaping* modifies *heart*; *stirr'd* modifies *spirit*; and *remembered* modifies *shout*.

"Oh! stay thy tears! for they are *blest*

Whose days are *past*; whose toil is *done*."

Blest is a participle modifying *they*; *past* modifies *days*; and *done* modifies *toil*. "By our passions and appetites *we* are *placed* on a level with the herds of the forest." "The *ambitious* are always *seeking* to aggrandize themselves."

106. These have been, and still are considered verbs in the passive voice, and the progressive form of the active voice. In the example, "we are placed," *are* is a *principal* verb, in the indicative mode, present tense of the verb to be; and *placed*, the prior-present participle of the verb *to place*, referring to *we* which it modifies. See Introduction.

RULE XIII.—*Adverbs.*

107. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs;—as, "Our moments *glide rapidly away*." "He was a *very good* man." "The bird flew *very rapidly*."

108. Adverbs of time and place, and some others, seem to connect sentences;—as, "He had not arrived *when* I departed."

109. Some adverbs modify prepositions;—as, "He sailed *nearly round* the island."

110. Adverbs sometimes supply the place of nouns;—as, "Till *then*, who knew the force of those dire arms?"

111. The adverb *there* is often used without any reference

to place;—as, “*There* is an hour of sweet repose.” When thus employed it is called an *expletive*.

112. Several adverbs joined together form an adverbial phrase.

113. The **DEFINITION** is all that is necessary in disposing of Prepositions and Conjunctions; therefore rules are not required.

CONJUNCTIONS.

114. Conjunctions connect words or sentences.

115. Two or more words are sometimes used together as a compound conjunction;—as, “Happiness, *as well as* virtue, consists in mediocrity.”

116. Some conjunctions are composed of two corresponding words either expressed or understood; *Though*, *although*—*yet*, *still*, *nevertheless*;—as, “*Though* rich, *yet* became he poor.” “*Though* powerful, *still* he was meek.” “*Though* he is now rich, he may *nevertheless* become poor.”

Both—and;—as, “He honored *both* his father *and* his mother.”

Either—or;—as, “I will *either* come for it myself, *or* send immediately.” “*Either* the one *or* the other.”

Whether—or;—as, “*Whether* he will go to-day, *or* to-morrow, I cannot tell.”

Neither—nor;—as, “*Neither* life *nor* death shall separate us.”

As—as;—as, “She was *as* amiable *as* her sister.”

As—so;—as, “*As* falleth the lofty pine before the tempest, *so* shall ye fall before the powerful arm of death.”

So—as;—as, “Speak distinctly, *so as* to be heard by all.”

117.—Or—or, is frequently used by poets instead of either—or ;—as,

“ Virtue the lowest place at table took,
Or served, *or* was shut out.”

“ He riches gave, he intellectual strength,
 To few, and therefore none commands to be
Or rich *or* learned.”

118. Nor—nor, is frequently used instead of neither—nor ;—as,

“ “ What, *nor* wind,
Nor wave, *nor* shock of falling years could move.”
 “ “ Which—*nor* the blast
 Of the bold huntsman’s horn, *nor* aught, that stirs
 The spirit to its bent, might drive away.”

119. The conjunction *or* sometimes connects words which signify the same thing ;—as, “ The use of alcoholic drinks, as a beverage, produces a sort of insanity *or* drunkenness.”

120. The word *as* has several uses, a few of which follow.

121. It is used with a preposition, forming a compound connective ;—as, “ There arose a dispute *as to* the course which they should take.” “ I know not what course others may take, but, *as for* me, give me liberty, or give me death.”

122. It is used to connect nouns and pronouns which are in apposition ;—as, “ We venture to deny that the Germans are defective in taste; even *as* a nation, *as* a public, taking one thing with another, we imagine they may stand comparison with any of their neighbours; *as* writers, *as* critics, they may decidedly court it.”

123. It is used to connect adjectives and participles

with their nouns ;—as, “Nay ! to the genuine poet, they deny even the privilege of regarding what so many cherish, under the title of fame, *as* the best and highest of all.” “ The result has much importance *as* bearing upon American slavery.”

124. The conjunctions *if*, *though*, *unless*, *whether*, and *except*, when they precede a verb in the future tense, do not require it to have its usual signs ;—as, “ If he say so, it is well ;” that is, “ If he (shall) say so, it is well.” “ Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him ;” i. e. “ Though he (should) slay me, yet will I trust in him.” “ Except ye repent, ye must all likewise perish ;” i. e. “ Except ye (shall) repent, ye must all likewise perish.”

125. The word *that* is commonly classed among conjunctions, when used in such a manner as in the following sentences. “ *That* all must die is certain.” “ The preacher cautions his hearers against complaining *that* the dispensations of Providence are too severe.” “ This unfortunate man was sustained in his afflictions by believing *that* happiness awaited him in another world.” In the first example given, “ That all must die is certain,” here it is evident *that* signifies the same thing in the sentence as “all must die,” and of course will be in apposition with the clause. If we transpose the sentence, and place *that* before its verb, we have “ All must die, *that* is certain.” So in the second sentence ; if we transpose it, we shall have, “ The dispensations of Providence are too severe, the preacher cautions his hearers against complaining (on) that (account).” In the last sentence, by transposition, we have, “ Happiness awaited him in a better world, this unfortunate man was sustained in his affliction by believing *that*.”

PREPOSITIONS.

126. Prepositions connect words and show the relation between them.

127. Both terms of the relation should always be given in parsing a preposition. The object of it is always one of its terms; the other may be either a noun, verb, or adjective;—as, “We should not glory *in* the extent *of* our own knowledge.” “We should ever be upright *in* our dealings.”

128. The preposition is often separated from the relative which it governs;—as, “Whom wilt thou listen to?” i. e. “To whom wilt thou listen?”

129. Two or more words are sometimes used together as a compound preposition;—as, “He came *from among* the hills.”

130. The preposition is frequently understood after the adverbs *like*, *unlike*, *near*, or *nigh*;—as, “Did he look like (to or unto) his father, or his mother?”

—
ORDER OF PARSING.

In parsing, the reason for every step should be given by the learner, as he proceeds, until he becomes familiar with the definitions and reasons. It would be well to give them by their number; the same should be done in regard to rules.

I. Names.
A Noun.
Com. or Prop.
Gender.
Number.
Case.
Government.
Rule.

II. Pronouns.
A Pronoun.
Stands for.
Gender.
Number.
Person.
Case.
Government.
Rule.

III. Adjectives.

An Adjective.
Kind of Adjective.
Degree.
Modifies.
Rule.

IV. Verbs.

A Verb.
Root.
Prin. parts.
Kind of Verb.
Mode.
Tense.
Number.
Person.
Agreement.
Rule.

V. Adverbs.

An Adverb.
Modifies.
Rule.

VI. Prepositions.

A Preposition.
Connecting.
The Antecedent term with.
The subsequent term.
Definition.

VII. Conjunctions.

Conjunction.
Connecting.
Definition.

EXAMPLE IN PARSING.

It would be well for the learner to finish the following piece of poetry, either upon his slate, or a piece of paper, giving the definitions, reasons, and rules, for the inspection of the teacher at the time of recitation. This piece is given, however, that the pupil may become familiar with the *definitions*.

Oh ! sunny is the morning hour
Of life's fast fleeting day,
And lovely every fragrant flower
That blooms along its way.—
And well my spirit loves to fly
On Mem'ry's pinion bright,
Back to my girlhood's glowing sky,
And to its pure delight !

I'm going now—and if you please
Kind reader ! come with me—
The way is short, and at our ease,
We'll chat with girlish glee.

Here flows my own, my singing brook,
 And it shall be our guide
 Along the vale ;—but listen ! look !
 Those ruddy lads beside
 Its flowery brink—with hook and line,
 And string of shining trout ;
 Are they not fair, those brothers mine ?
 Are they not brave and stout ?

One of them counts two summers more
 Than I, his fav’rite sis—
 The other, tho’ he’s tall, I’m sure
 Has seen two summers less.
 Yes, yes ! they see me, and I hear
 Their welcome, loud and free—
 They beckon !—well, I’ll soon be there,
 Their finny spoils to see.
 Oh, let me lay my flowers aside
 Upon the shining sands,
 And clap, in all my girlish pride,
 My plump and sun-brown hands !

And now away ! my brothers bold
 And generous of heart,
 As ever was brave knight of old !—
 We’ll to our father’s cot,
 And ye will bear your precious load,
 And I my flowers so sweet,
 Right merrily along the road,
 Our mother’s smile to meet.
 There ! *there* amid the opening trees,
 Our little cot I spy,
 And list ! a song upon the breeze—
 ’Tis baby’s lullaby.

Oh haste ! I’ve been so long away
 I fain would be at home,
 For long has been the summer day,
 Since I went forth to roam.
 We’re standing by our mother’s knee—
 Oh ! mark her gentle smile !
 How sweetly and how lovingly
 It rests on us the while.
 Oh ! now she takes my boquet bright—
 I’m bl st ; I’m *greatly* blest—
 With what a load of fond delight
 My beating heart is press’d !

Oh!—a voice of nature, expressive of emotion.

sunny—a modifier of the noun *hour*: ‘sunny hour.’ Rule 7.

is—an irregular intransitive verb; a verb, because it expresses an assertion; irregular, because it does not form its past tense and prior-present participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the present;—am, was, been; intransitive, because it can have no object; in the indicative mode, because it declares; present tense, because it denotes present time; third person singular, to agree with its subject *hour*: ‘hour is.’ Rule 8.

the—a modifier of the noun *hour*: ‘the hour.’ 7.

morning—a modifier of the noun *hour*: ‘morning hour.’ 7.

hour :—a noun, common, singular; a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is a general name; singular number, because it denotes but one; in the nominative case, the subject of the verb *is*: ‘hour is.’ 1.

of—a preposition, connecting *hour* and *day*: ‘hour of day.’ Part II. Chap. I. 16.

life’s—a modifier of the noun *day*: ‘Life’s day.’ 7.

fast—an adverb, modifying *fleeting*: ‘fast fleeting.’ 13.

fleeting—a modifier of the noun *day*: ‘fleeting day.’ 7.

day—a noun, common, singular; in the objective case, the object of relation expressed by the preposition *of*, by which it is governed: ‘of day.’

and—a conjunction, connecting the simple sentences. Part II. Chap. I. 17.

lovely—a modifier of the noun *flower*: ‘lovely flower.’ 7.

every—a distributive modifier of the noun *flower*: ‘every flower.’ 7.

fragrant—a modifier of the noun *flower*: ‘fragrant flower.’ 7.

flower—the same as the noun *hour*.

that—a relative pronoun, referring to *flower* for its antecedent, and the subject of the verb *blooms*: ‘that blooms.’ Rule 6, 1.

blooms—a verb, regular, intransitive; a verb, because it expresses an assertion; regular, because it forms its past tense and prior-present participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the present; intransitive, because it can have no object; in the indicative mode, because it declares; present tense, because it denotes present time; third, singular, to agree with its subject *that*: ‘that blooms.’ 8.

along—a preposition, connecting *blooms* and *way*: ‘blooms along way.’ Part II. Chap. I. 16.

its—a possessive pronominal adjective; possessive, because it denotes possession; pronominal, because it partakes of the

nature of a pronoun ; adjective or modifier, because it modifies ; modifies the noun *way* : 'its way.' 7.

way—a noun, common, singular, in the objective case, the object of relation expressed by the preposition *along*, by which it is governed : 'along way.' 4.

and—a conjunction, continuing the sentence.

well—a modifier of the verb *loves* : 'loves well.' 13.

my—a possessive pronominal adjective or modifier of the noun *spirit* : 'my spirit.' 7.

spirit—a noun, common, singular ; in the nominative case, the subject of the verb *loves* : 'spirit loves.' 1.

loves—a regular, transitive verb ; in the indicative mode, present tense ; third, singular, to agree with its subject *spirit* : 'spirit loves.' 8.

to fly—an irregular, intransitive verb ; in the infinitive mode, present tense, the object of the verb *loves* : 'loves to fly.'

Part III. 100.

on—a preposition, connecting *to fly* and *pinion* : 'to fly on pinion.' Part II. Chap. I. 16.

Mem'ry's—a modifier of the noun *pinion* : 'Mem'ry's pinion.' 7

pinion—a noun, common, singular ; in the objective case, the object of relation expressed by the preposition *on*, by which it is governed : 'on pinion.' 4.

bright—a modifier of the noun *pinion* : 'bright pinion.' 7.

Back—a modifier of the verb *to fly* : 'to fly back.' 13.

to—a preposition, connecting *to fly* and *sky* : 'to fly to sky.'

my—a modifier of the adjective *girlhood's* : 'my girlhood's.'

Part III. 74.

girlhood's—a modifier of the noun *sky* : 'girlhood's sky.' 7.

glowing—a modifier of the noun *sky* : 'glowing sky.' 7.

sky—a noun, common, singular ; in the objective case ; the object of relation expressed by the preposition *to*, by which it is governed : 'to sky.' 4.

and—a conjunction, continuing the sentence.

to—a preposition, connecting *to fly* and *delight* : 'to fly to delight.'

Part II. Chap. I. 16.

its—a possessive pronominal adjective or modifier of the noun *delight* : 'its delight.' 7.

pure—a modifier of the noun *delight* : 'pure delight.' 7.

delight—a noun, common, singular ; in the objective case ; the object of the preposition *to* by which it is governed : 'to delight.' 4.

WORDS USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

131. *That* is a relative pronoun when *who* or *which* can be placed in its stead ;—as, “He is the man *that* (who) told me.”

132. *That* is a modifier or adjective, when it modifies a noun ;—as, “*That* man is happy.”

133. *As* is a relative pronoun, when it follows many, such, or same ;—as, “Such *as* hear will obey.”

134. *As* is a conjunction, in all cases except when it is a pronoun ;—as, “He did *as* he was required.”

135. *Either* is a conjunction, when it corresponds to *or* ;—as, “*Either* the one or the other.”

136. *Either* is an adjective, when it signifies “one of two ;”—as, “Will *either* of them go ?”

137. *Both* is a conjunction, when it corresponds to and ;—as, “*Both* James and Henry went.”

138. *Both* is an adjective, when it signifies the two ;—as, “Give me *both* books.”

139. *Yet* is a conjunction, when it follows *though* ;—as, “Though he struck me, *yet* I am not angry.”

140. *Yet* is an adverb, when it is not a conjunction ;—as, “I have not *yet* learned my lesson.”

141. *For* is a conjunction when used in the sense of because ;—as, “He respected him, *for* he had never wronged him.”

142. *For* is a preposition, in all cases when not a conjunction ;—as, “He bought it *for* me.”

143. *What* is a compound relative, when it stands for “that which ;”—as, “I received *what* (that which) he sent me.”

144. *What* is a simple relative, when used in asking a question ;—as, “*What* do you wish ?”

145. *What* is a modifier, when it is not a relative ;—as, “I cannot tell in *what* direction he went.”

146. *Much* is a noun, when it stands for quantity ;—as, “Where *much* is given, *much* will be required.”

147. *Much* is an adjective or modifier, when it modifies a noun ;—as, “*Much* learning maketh thee mad.”

148. *Much* is an adverb, when it performs the office of the adverb ;—as, “He is *much* happier than I am.”

149. *More* is a noun, when it implies quantity ;—as, “The *more* we have, the *more* we want.”

150. *More* and *most* are modifiers of nouns, when joined with them ;—as, “I have *more* money than I shall use at present.” “*Most* men are liable to be deceived.”

151. *More* and *most* are modifiers of adjectives when joined with them ;—as, “He is *more frugal* than many are.” “He is the *most industrious* man I ever saw.”

PUNCTUATION.

152. *Punctuation* is the dividing of written composition, by points or stops, into such sentences, or parts of sentences, as the sense intended to be conveyed and the grammatical construction require.

153. The following are the principal points : the Comma (,), the Semicolon (;), the Colon (:), the Period (.), the Dash (—), the Point of Interrogation (?), and the Point of Exclamation (!).

154. The *Comma* requires the shortest pause ; the *Semicolon*, a longer pause than the Comma ; the *Colon*,

a longer than the Semicolon ; and the *Period*, a full stop.

155. The *Point of Interrogation* and the *Point of Exclamation* may take the place of either of these pauses, in which case, they require the same length of time, as the pause for which they stand.

156. The precise quantity or duration of each pause depends entirely upon the composition ; some pieces require much longer intervals than others ;—as, for instance,

“Morn came again,
But the young lamb was dead.
Yet the poor mother’s fond distress,
Its every art had tried.
To shield, with sleepless tenderness,
The weak one at her side ;”

in which the duration of pause is greater than in the following ;

“Sisters ! hence, with spurs of speed !
Each her thundering falchion wield ;
Each bestride her sable steed ;
Hurry ! hurry to the field !”

157. The idea conveyed by the passage frequently requires a pause in reading, where custom will not warrant the insertion of a comma, in writing ;—as, “Time | once passed | never returns.” “Silver | and gold | have I none.”

“Some | place the bliss | in action, some in ease :
Those | call it pleasure, and contentment | these.”

158. Points are sometimes inserted barely for the purpose of indicating the syntactical construction, and do not require a suspension of the voice in reading ;—as, “I answered—yes, sir.”

Comma.

159. The *comma* usually separates parts of a sentence, which, though closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

160. RULE I. When the subject of a sentence consists of a single nominative, with several modifiers, a comma should be inserted before the verb ;—as, “The true enjoyments of a reasonable being, *do* not consist in unbounded indulgences.” “The assumption that the cause of Christianity is declining, *is* gratuitous.”

161. RULE II. When the connection of the different parts of a simple sentence, is broken by an interrupting clause, a comma should be placed *both before*, and *after* the clause ;—as, “Such a subject, *we are persuaded*, has very great capabilities.” “All powerful and pathetic poetry, *it is obvious*, abounds in images of distress.” Slight interruptions do not require commas.

162. RULE III. When several nouns, verbs, adjectives, participles, or adverbs, are found in the same construction, they are usually separated by commas ;—as, “*Birth, rank, wealth, learning*, are advantages of slight value, if unaccompanied by personal worth.” “Education, regarding man as a *rational, accountable*, and *immortal* being, *elevates, expands, and enriches* his mind ; cultivates the best affections of his heart.”

“*Embracing* all, *supporting, ruling* o'er,
Being whom we call God, and know no more.”

“I speak the truth *openly, boldly, baldly, unequivocally*.”

163. RULE IV. When two nouns, verbs, adjectives, participles, or adverbs, are found in the same construction unconnected by a conjunction, they are separated

by a comma, but when intimately connected, the comma is omitted ;—as, “Creatures of *imitation* and *sympathy*, as we are, we look around us for *support* and *comfort* even in our virtues.” “Education *smooths* and *polishes* the roughnesses of our nature.” “True merit is *modest* and *retiring*.” “By being *flattered* and *admired* our vanity is excited.” “He studies systematically and attentively.”

164. RULE V. When the subject of a sentence consists of two nominatives, with their modifiers, a comma should be placed between them ;—as, “*Attention to his business, and promptness in his dealings,* commanded the respect of all.”

165. RULE VI. When successive words are joined in pairs, each pair should be separated from the others, by a comma ;—as, “*The old and the young, the high and the low, the rich and the poor,* are alike exposed to the shafts of death.”

166. RULE VII. When the different members of a compound sentence, contain distinct propositions, they are separated by commas ;—as, “The sky was clear, and the air was fresh and balmy.”

167. RULE VIII. When an address is made, the person or thing addressed is separated by a comma, from the subject of the address ;—as, “Sir, I hope I know my duty better.” “Peace, *cousin*, say no more.” “*Brother*, the king hath made your nephew mad.”

168. RULE IX. When the simple members of a sentence, are connected by comparatives, they are separated by a Comma ;—as, “*As* the hart panteth after the water brooks, *so* doth my soul pant after thee.”

169. RULE X. When one or more words, except an adverb, come between the relative and its antecedent,

the former should be preceded by a comma ;—as, “Much truth had been assented to in Time, which never, till this day, had made a due impression on the heart.”

170. RULE XI. When the intransitive verb *to be* is followed by another verb in the infinitive, which might be considered its subject, the former should be separated from the latter, by a comma ;—as, “The object of our present visit is, *to see* the falls, and to call upon our friends.”

171. RULE XII. When a word or phrase is omitted in a sentence, a comma should be inserted in its place ;—as, “As a companion, he was severe and satirical ; as a friend, captious and dangerous.”

172. RULE XIII. When either of two words in apposition is accompanied by modifiers, the latter, with its modifiers, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas ;—as,

“Ye winds, ye *unseen currents of the air*,
Softly ye played a few brief hours ago.”

173. RULE XIV. When a word or phrase is repeated for the sake of emphasis, a comma should be inserted before and after it ;—as,

“That silent moon, *that silent moon*,
Careering now through cloudless sky.”

Semicolon.

174. The *semicolon* is used to denote a pause longer than that represented by a comma.

175. RULE I. When a member of a sentence, containing a complete proposition, is followed by an explanatory clause, or one which expresses an inference, or contrast, the semicolon should be placed between

them ;—as, “Man is strong; *but his heart is not adamant.* He delights in enterprise and action; but, *to sustain him, he needs a tranquil mind, and a whole heart.*”

176. RULE II. When several successive members of a sentence have a common connection with another clause following or preceding it, they are separated by a semicolon ;—as,

“But whether I, of person speak, or place;
Event or action; moral or divine;
Or things unknown compared with things unknown,” etc.

177. Several successive short sentences, having no common connection or dependence, are sometimes separated by semicolons ;—as,

“Satan raged loose; Sin had her will; and Death
Enough; blood trod upon the heels of blood;
Revenge, in desperate mood, at midnight met
Revenge; war brayed at war; deceit deceived
Deceit; lie cheated lie; and treachery!
Mined under treachery; and perjury
Swore back on perjury.”

Colon.

178. The *colon* is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less intimately connected than those separated by a semicolon.

179. RULE I. When a member of a sentence is complete in itself, but is followed by some further remark or illustration, the colon is inserted ;—as, “Your rights are invaded: confidence in negotiation is vain: there is, therefore, no alternative but force. You are

exposed to imminent present danger: you have the prospect of great future advantage: you are justified by the clearest principles of right: you are urged by the strongest motives of policy: you are commanded by every sentiment of national dignity."

180. RULE II. When a sentence contains several perfect members, separated from each other by semi-colons, a colon should be placed before the last in order to mark the concluding sentiment;—as, "A divine legislator, uttering his voice from heaven; an Almighty Governor, stretching forth his arm to punish or reward; informing us of perpetual rest prepared hereafter for the righteous, and of indignation and wrath awaiting the wicked: these are the considerations which overawe the world, which support integrity and check guilt."

Period.

181. RULE I. A *period* is placed at the end of a sentence, to denote its completion;—as, "Sagacious enterprise is there."

182. RULE II. A period must be used after all abbreviated words;—as, "A. B." "A. D." "A. M."

Dash.

183. The *dash* is used where the sentence has been abruptly broken off; where there is a sudden transition; or where a significant pause is required;—as,

"A. "I think, and, what is more important perhaps, those with whom I act, think that course advisable and I—"

“B. ‘Advisable ! Sir, it is destructive—it is the beginning of all evil—the very germ of ruin—’

“Is nothing left of his victories now
But legions broken—a sword in rust—
A crown that cumbers a dotard’s brow—
A name and a requiem—dust to dust ?”

“I stooped and wrote upon the sand
My name—the year—the day.”

184. When the dash accompanies another pause, it denotes a greater duration of time than the pause does when used alone ;—as,

“Take then thy station—act thy proper part ;—
A Savior’s mercy seek,—his will perform.”

Point of Interrogation.

185. The *point of interrogation* is used at the close of an interrogative sentence ;—as,

“Can a sister be forgotten ?”

“Do memories perish when friends are severed ?”

“Sat not around his table sons and daughters ?
Was not his ear with music pleased ? his eye,
With light ? his nostrils, with perfumes ? his lips,
With pleasant relishes ?”

Point of Exclamation.

186. Expressions of sudden emotion, surprise, joy, grief, etc., also addresses, or invocations, are followed by the *point of exclamation* ;—as,

“God of my fathers ! holy, just, and good !
My God ! my Father ! my unfading hope !

Jehovah! let the incense of thy praise,
Accepted, burn before thy mercy seat,
And in thy presence burn both night and day.”

Parenthesis.

187. The *parenthesis* is a clause or remark, introduced into the body of a sentence, for the purpose of explaining or qualifying the principal sentence: it is introduced in such a manner as not to injure the construction.

188. The parenthesis is generally included in curved lines ; thus, (). It generally requires a moderate depression of the voice ;—as,

“Friendship’s the wine of life ; but friendship new
(Not such was his) is neither strong nor pure.”

“Soon our whole term for wisdom is expired,
(Thou know’st she calls no council in the grave,)
And everlasting fool is writ in fire,
Or real wisdom wafts us to the skies.”

The Apostrophe.

189. The *apostrophe* (’) shows that a word or words are abbreviated or shortened ; and is placed directly over where the letter or letters are omitted ;—as,

“As yet I’ll (I will) neither triumph nor despair.”

“’Tis (it is) immortality your nature solves.”

“Thus seal’d (sealed) by truth th’ (the) authentic record runs.”

190. When a noun is employed to modify another noun, the apostrophe is used ;—as,

“ And still those grey old towers were there,
 The lofty trees above,
 Where he had shown a *lover's* care,
 And won—a *sister's* love.”

“ And *childhood's* happy home is there,
 And *childhood's* free and blithesome hours;
 Again we prove a *mother's* love,
 'Neath young life's radiant morning bowers.”

In these cases *e* or *i* is omitted.

191. Sometimes, when several words come together, implying common possession, the apostrophe and letter *s* are only annexed to the last;—as, “Charles and Henry's books,” i. e. “(Charles and Henry)'s books.”

The Hyphen.

192. The *hyphen* (-) is used to connect compound words, and also, when a part of a word is at the end of one line, and the other part at the beginning of the next;—as,

“ The victory was never-ending bliss.”

“ Education is indeed a companion which no misfortune can depress, no clime destroy, no despotism enslave.”

The Dieresis.

193. The *Dieresis* (‘) placed over one of two vowels to show that they do not form a diphthong;—as

“ Creator, yes! Thy wisdom and Thy word
 Created me.”

194. The *Acute Accent* (') is used to denote a short syllable, also the rising inflection of the voice.

195. The *Grave Accent* (`) is used to denote a long syllable, also, the falling inflection.

196. The *Breve* (~) shows that the syllable, over which it is placed, is short.

197. The *Macron* (-) shows that the syllable, over which it is placed, is long.

198. The *Caret* (^) shows that some letter, word, or words, have been omitted, which are placed over the line.

199. The *Ellipsis* (—) denotes the *intentional* omission of some letters or words.

200. The *Brace* { is used to unite a triplet, or several terms, to something to which they are related.

201. The *Section* (§) marks the smallest division of a chapter.

202. The *Paragraph* (¶) denotes the beginning of a new subject. Its use is chiefly confined to the Old and New Testaments.

203. The *Quotation* (“ ”) is used to mark the words or clauses taken from another author.

204. The *Hand* (⌈ ⌋) is used to call particular attention to some passage or remark.

205. The *Asterisk* (*), the *Obelisk* (†), the *Double Dagger* (‡), and the *Parallels* (||), *letters* of the alphabet and *figures*, are used to refer to the bottom of the page.

USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

206. All proper names should begin with capital letters.

207. All adjectives derived from proper names should begin with capital letters.

208. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a colon, should begin with a capital letter. The first word of an example may begin with a capital ;—as, “Know thyself.”

209. The first word after a period, and, if the two sentences are entirely independent, after a point of interrogation or exclamation, should begin with a capital.

210. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing, should begin with a capital.

211. The pronoun *I*, and the voice of nature *O*, are written in capitals.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

1. *Prosody* treats of the pronunciation of words, and the poetical construction of sentences.

PRONUNCIATION.

2. Pronunciation includes *Accent*, *Quantity*, *Emphasis*, *Tone*, and *Pause*.

3. *Accent* is a stress laid on one or more syllables of a word.

4. *Accent* is either primary or secondary.

5. The *primary* accent is placed over that syllable of a word which has the greatest stress of voice.

6. The *secondary* accent is placed over another syllable beside that which has the primary accent.

7. The *quantity* of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it.

8. A vowel or syllable is long, when the accent is on the vowel, which occasions it to be slowly joined in pronunciation with the following letters.

9. A syllable is short, when the accent is on the consonant, which occasions the vowel to be quickly joined in pronunciation with the following letters.

10. A syllable may be long, or short.

11. A long syllable generally requires nearly double

the time of a short one in pronouncing it; *mate, note*, are twice as long as *not, mat*.

12. *Emphasis* is a stronger and fuller sound of voice, by which we distinguish some word or words from others in the same sentence.

13. It is used to make those words which are most important in sense, most prominent to the ear of the hearer.

14. No precise rules can be given to regulate the application of Emphasis. In order to apply it correctly the reader should thoroughly understand the exact import of what he reads.

15. *Tone* is that modulation of voice, depending upon the speaker's feelings, which is employed in expressing our sentiments.

16. A *pause* is a short suspension of the voice in speaking or reading.

17. In poetry there are two pauses;—the *cæsural*, and the *final*.

18. The *cæsura* is introduced into a line for the purpose of making the versification more melodious.

“The expecting crowds | in still attention hung
To hear the wisdom | of his heavenly tongue.
Then deeply thoughtful | pausing ere he spoke,
His silence thus | the prudent hero broke.”

“But there’s a joy | in some lone hours,
From friends | and home away,
When come in dreams | the birds and flowers
That cheered | my early day.”

19. The *final pause* occurs at the end of a line.

VERSIFICATION.

20. VERSIFICATION is a measured arrangement of words, in which the accent recurs at certain regular intervals.

21. There are two kinds of verse ;—*rhyme*, and *blank verse*.

22. RHYME is the correspondence of the last sound in one line to the last sound in another ;—as,

“ And freedom hallows with her *tread*
The silent cities of the *dead*.”

23. BLANK VERSE is without rhyme ;—as,

“ Nearer the stranger came, and bending o'er
The leper's prostrate form pronounced his name,
'Helon!' The voice was like the master-tone
Of a rich instrument—most strangely sweet—;
And the dull pulses of disease awoke,
And, for a moment, beat beneath the hot
And leprous scales with a restoring thrill.
'Helon! arise!' and he forgot his curse,
And rose and stood before him.”

24. Each line in blank verse contains ten syllables.

25. Rhymed verse may consist of any number of syllables.

26. A Foot is a certain number of syllables connected together ;—as,

“ The white | sail woos | the fra | grant air.”

27. All feet, in poetry, are composed of either two, or three syllables, and are reduced to eight kinds ; four of two, and four of three syllables.

Dissyllable.

An Iambus $\sim \sim$

A Trochee $- \sim$

A Spondee $\sim \sim$

A Pyrrhic $\sim \sim$

Trisyllable.

An Amphibrach $\sim \sim \sim$

A Tribrach $- \sim \sim$

A Dactyl $\sim \sim \sim$

An Anapest $\sim \sim -$

28. An **IAMBUS** has the first syllable unaccented, and the last accented.

29. A **TROCHEE** has the first syllable accented, and the last unaccented.

30. A **SPONDEE** has both syllables accented.

31. A **PYRRHIC** has both syllables unaccented.

32. An **AMPHIBRACH** has the first and last syllables unaccented, and the middle accented.

33. A **TRIBRACH** has all its syllables unaccented.

34. A **DACTYL** has the first syllable accented, and the second and third, unaccented.

35. An **ANAPEST** has the first and second unaccented, and the last accented.

36. The Iambus, Trochee, and Anapest, are the principal feet used in English poetry. They are termed *primary* feet.

37. The Spondee, Pyrrhic, Amphibrach, Tribrach, and Dactyl, are called *secondary* feet.

38. A **VERSE** is a line of poetry consisting of a certain number of long and short syllables.

39. A **COUPLET** consists of two verses making complete sense ;—as,

“The orchard—and the yellow-mantled fields,
Each in its turn some dear remembrance yields.”

40. A **TRIPLET** consists of three verses which rhyme together ;—as,

“And oft, when harshly she reproved, I wept,
To my lone corner, broken-hearted, crept,
And thought of tender home where anger never kept.”

41. **ALLITERATION** is the frequent recurrence of the same letter :—as,

“The *lordly* lion leaves his *lonely* lair.”

42. A STANZA is a combination of several verses forming a regular division of a poem.

43. SCANNING is the resolving of verses into the several feet of which they are composed.

IAMBIC VERSE.

44. IAMBIC VERSE is composed of Iambuses. It has every second, fourth, and other even syllable accented.

45. The shortest form of Iambic verse, is composed of one Iambus and an additional syllable ;—as,

“ Ādmīr | ing
Dēsīr | ing.”

46. The next form consists of two Iambuses, and is seldom used, only when introduced into stanzas ;—as,

“ Wīth thēe | wē rīse,
Wīth thēe | wē reīgn.”

This form sometimes takes an additional syllable ;—as,

“ Hīgh ūp thē mōunt | ain,
Bēsīde ā sōunt | ain.”

47. The third form consists of three Iambuses, and also takes an additional syllable ;—as,

“ Whēn oth | ēr friēnds | āre roūnd | thee ;
And oth | ēr heārts | āre thīne ;
Whēn oth | ēr bāys | hāve crōwn'd | thee,
Mōre frēsh | ānd grēen | thān mīne.”

48. The fourth form consists of four Iambuses ;—as,

“ Dēceīve | nō mōre | thysēlf | ānd mē,
Dēceīve | nōt bēt | tēr heārts | thān mīne ;
Ah ! shōuldst | thōu, whīth | ēr woūldst | thōu fleē,
Frōm wō | like oūrs, | frōm shāme | like thīne.”

49. This form also sometimes takes an additional unaccented syllable ;—as,

“Ór īf | īt bē | thy wīll | ānd plēas | ūre
Dīrect | my ploūgh | to fīnd | ā treās | ūre.”

50. The fifth form, or Heroic measure, consists of five Iambuses ;—

“Moūrn nōt | fōr hēr ! | fōr whāt | hāth līfe | tō gīve
Thāt shoūld | dētaīn | hēr reā | dy spīr | īt hēre ?
Thīnk'st thōu | thāt īt | wēre wōrth | ā wīsh | tō līve
Coūld wīsh | ēs hōld | hēr frōm | hēr prōp | ēr sphēre ?”

51. “Ā pāl | āce thīs | bēfīt | tīng kīng | ly prīde:
Will hō | līnēss | my frīend | īn pāl | āce pōmp |
ābīde ?”

The last verse is called an *Alexandrine*; it consists of twelve syllables or six Iambic feet. We find it frequently in heroic verse, especially at the close of a passage.

Trochaic Verse.

52. TROCHAIC VERSE is composed of Trochaic feet.

53. The shortest Trochaic verse consists of one Trochaic foot, and an additional syllable ;—as,

“ Tūmūlt | ceāse,
Sīnk tō | peāce.”

54. Two Trochees ;—as,

“ Wīshēs | rīsing,
Thōughts sūr | prīsing,
Plēasūres | coūrtīng,
Chārms trāns | pōrtīng !”

55. Third form : three Trochees ;—as,

“ Whēresō | e'ēr thy | lōt cōm | mānd,
Brōthēr, | pīlgriṁ, | strāngēr,
Gōd īs | ēvēr | nēar āt | hānd,
Gōldēn | shīeld frōm | dāngēr.”

56. Fourth form : four Trochees ;—as,
 “ Round ūs—rōars thē | tēmpēst | loūdēr.”

Anapestic Verse.

57. ANAPESTIC VERSE has accent on every third syllable ;—as,

“ Āt thē sī | lēnce ūf twī | līght’s cōntēm | plātīve hōur,
 ī häve mūsed | īn ā sōr | rōwfūl moōd,
 Ōn thē wīnd- | shākēn weēds | thāt ēmbō | sōm thē bōwer
 Whēre thē hōme | ūf my fōre | fāthērs stoōd.

58. Iambic, Trochaic, and Anapestic feet, are often found in the same verse ;—as,

“ Hōw deār | tō mȳ heārt | āre thē scēnes | ūf mȳ child | hōod,
 Whēn fōnd | rēcōllēc | tīqns prēsēnt | thēm tō viēw.”

“ Tȳrānt | ānd slāve | thōse nāmes | ūf hāte | ānd fēar.”

FIGURES OF SPEECH.

59. A FIGURE OF SPEECH is a mode of speaking in which a word or sentence is to be understood in a sense different from its most common signification.

60. The principal figures of speech are,

Personification,	Synecdoche,
Simile,	Antithesis,
Metaphor,	Climax,
Allegory,	Exclamation,
Hyperbole,	Interrogation,
Irony,	Paralepsis,
Metonymy,	Apostrophe.

61. PERSONIFICATION is a figure by which we ascribe to irrational animals and objects, the actions and qualities of rational beings ; as, “ The *ground* *thirsts* for rain.”

62. A SIMILE is a direct and formal comparison ;—

as, "My voice remains *like* a blast that roars lonely on a sea-surrounded rock."

63. A METAPHOR is an indirect comparison ;—as,

"Life is a torrid day, parched by the wind and sun,
And death the calm cool night,
When the weary day is done."

64. An ALLEGORY is a continuation of metaphors ;—as, 80th Psalm, "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt," &c.

65. An HYPERBOLE is a figure of speech which represents things as greater or less, better or worse, than they really are ;—as, "They are swifter than eagles ; they are stronger than lions."

66. IRONY is that figure of speech which represents the contrary of what we say ;—as, "Cry aloud, for he is a God," &c.

67. METONYMY is a figure of speech by which the cause is put for the effect, or the effect, for the cause ;—as, "I have been reading *Cicero*,"—the *orations* of Cicero.

68. SYNECDOCHE is a putting the part for the whole, or the whole for a part, a definite number for an indefinite ;—as, "This roof (house) shall be his protection."

69. An ANTITHESIS is an expression denoting opposition or contrast ;—as,

"Tho' deep, yet clear ; tho' gentle, yet not dull."

70. CLIMAX is a figure in which the ideas rise or sink in regular gradation ;—as, "Giving all diligence, add to your faith, virtue ; and to virtue, knowledge ; and to knowledge, temperance ; and to temperance, patience ; and to patience, godliness ; and to godliness, brotherly kindness ; and to brotherly kindness, charity."

71. EXCLAMATION is a figure used to express some strong emotion of the mind ;—as,

“ Oh wretched state ! O bosom, black as death.”

72. INTERROGATION is a figure by which a question is asked for the purpose of strengthening an assertion ;—as, “ Is this the part of wise men, engaged in a great and arduous struggle for liberty ? ” “ Are we disposed to be of the number of those who, having eyes, see not, and, having ears, hear not, the things which so nearly concern their temporal salvation ? ”

73. PARALEPSIS is a figure by which the speaker pretends to conceal what he is really declaring and strongly enforcing ;—as, “ His gaming, *not to speak of his intemperate habits*, reduced him to poverty.”

74. APOSTROPHE is a figure by which the speaker or writer turns from the persons addressed, to some other person or thing ;—as, “ Death is swallowed up in victory. *O Death ! where is thy sting ? O Grave ! where is thy victory ?* ”

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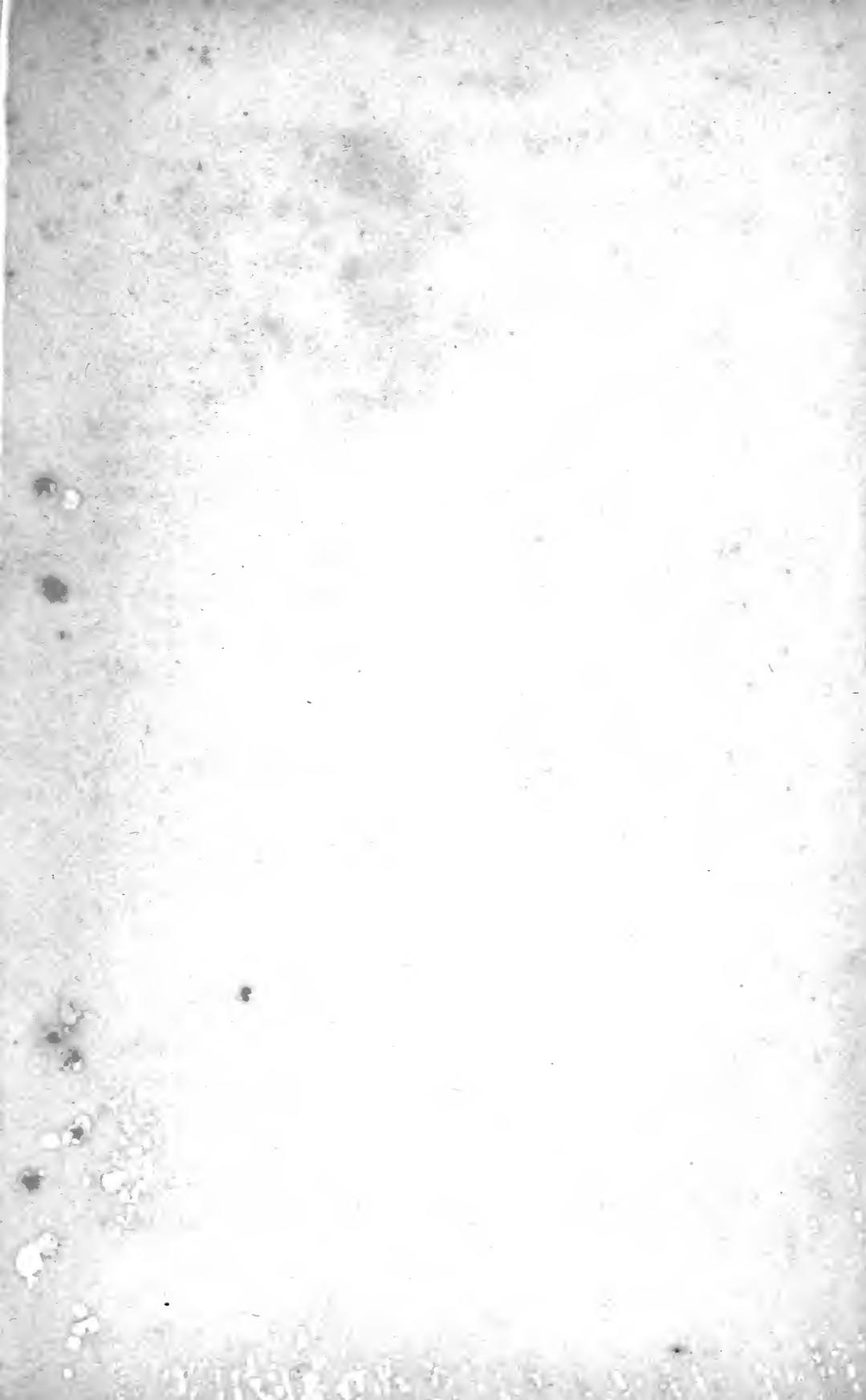
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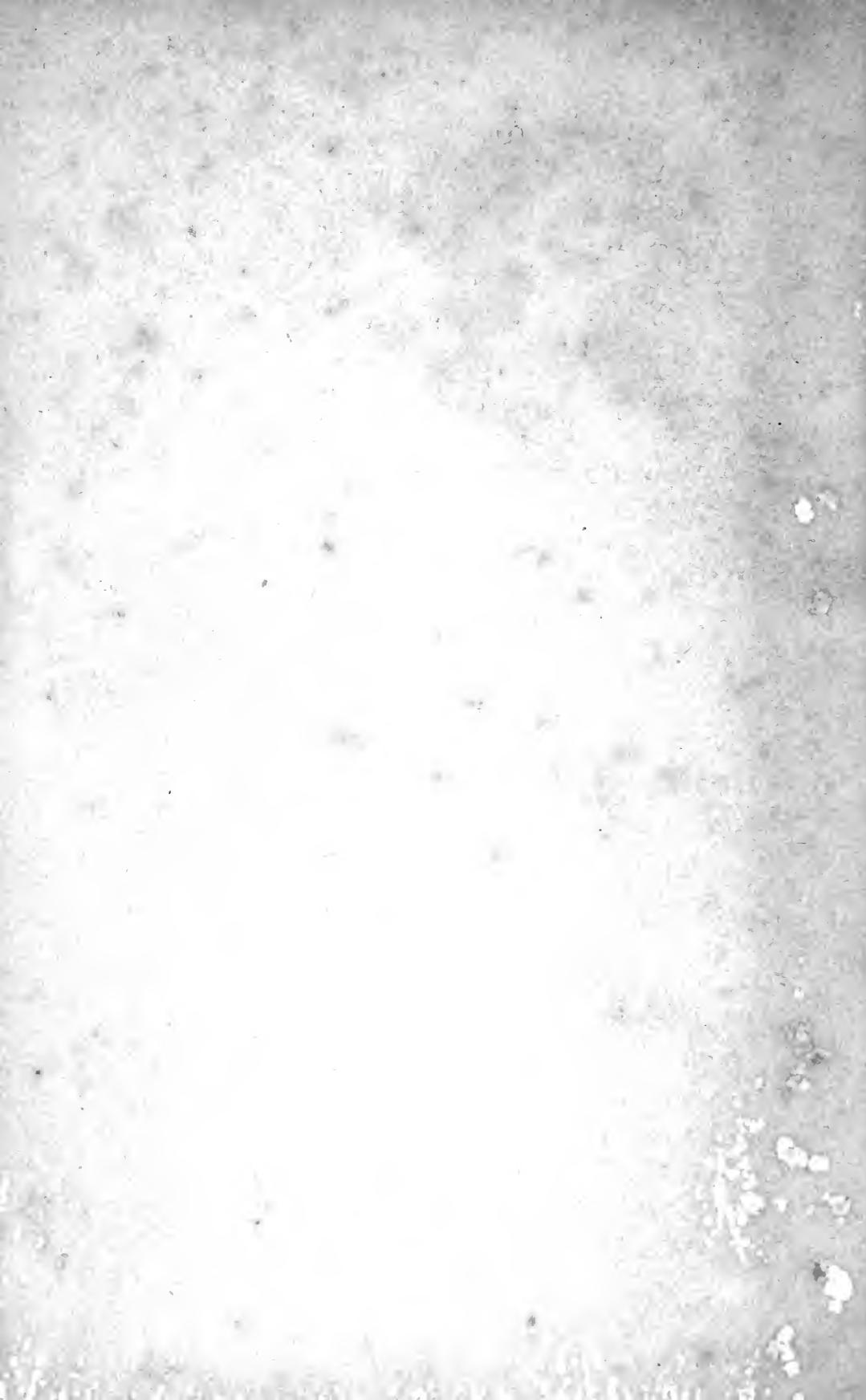
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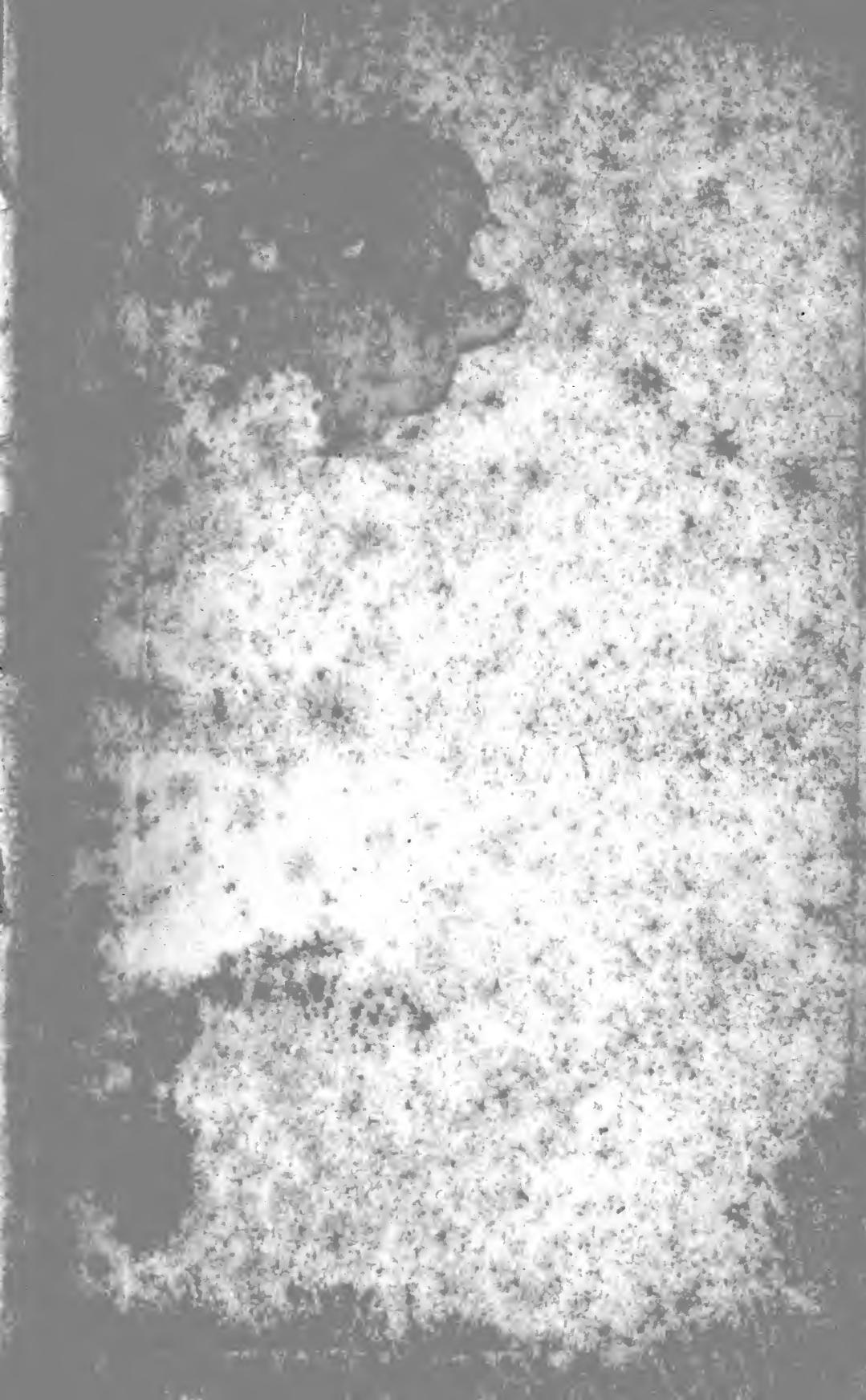












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